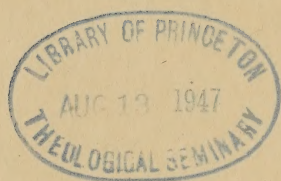


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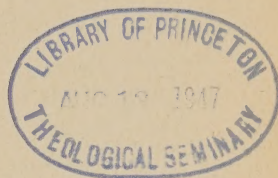
Ruth Strang



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THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN PERSONNEL WORK

By RUTH STRANG



✓ Revised and
Enlarged Edition ✓

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Preface

During the ten years since the publication of the second edition of *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, the author has become increasingly aware of the teacher's and the administrator's need for knowing *how* to do more effective work with individuals and with groups. In surveys of guidance in a number of cities she has seen excellent machinery for guidance superimposed by an enthusiastic administrator without the fundamental slow growth in appreciation and in guidance methods that is necessary if a program is to function in the lives of students. Everywhere is a need for a better quality of counseling and group work. Appraisal of present practice and correlation of it with theory will make effective guidance realistic and realizable.

For this reason the author included in this third edition less *about* guidance and more concrete illustrations of *how to do* more effective student personnel work. Students' need for guidance is pointed out; conditions that are preventing the teacher and principal from doing their best work are recognized; why persons behave as they do is discussed; programs are outlined to show the teacher's place in a larger setting; the teacher's guidance roles in the classroom, in the homeroom, in the group guidance class, in extraclass activities, with parents and community, and as teacher-counselor are described; common problems of students and how to deal with them are considered; and ways of improving counseling methods and technics are presented.

All this knowledge of ways to improve the personnel services in school and college should be built into the preparation of every teacher and administrator. This is the responsibility of all institutions concerned with the education of teachers. Unfortunately, the large majority of administrators and teachers now employed in schools and colleges have

had no preparation for their guidance responsibilities. Consequently in-service education is necessary. They need help in doing better the personnel work that they are now doing poorly. Improvement in quality of counseling and group work will greatly increase their proficiency and satisfaction.

No decision on the best terminology to describe this field of work has yet been reached. To some, *personnel work* is to be preferred because it directs attention at once to the individual: it is work having to do with individuals. Others favor the word *guidance* because it has become so widely used to describe work with individuals and work with groups in educational institutions, especially in the elementary and high school: it has the advantage of flexibility and familiarity. In this book the author reflects the present vacillation and uses both words interchangeably, although she believes that *personnel work* should eventually be the words used to describe the broad process: counseling, guidance through groups, and policy making with reference to conditions that contribute to the best development of every individual.

The author is greatly indebted to the workers in this field who have published books and articles and to the students in her course on "The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work," which she has taught at Teachers College, Columbia University, at Duke University, and at the University of Colorado over a period of almost twenty years. Among the many students who have contributed illustrations of guidance at work are the following: Julia Collins Ardayne, Marietta Banks, Lynn Bartlett, Alfred Baruth, R. C. Beemon, Adele C. Columbia, Laura W. Darley, Thomas J. Francis, Anne E. Garry, Mary Holman, Dorothy Hughes, W. F. Irwin, Myrtle P. Jarmon, Bertha Johnson, Sarah Joyner, Alice B. Julien, Frances King, F. Knapman, Doris Mabbinn, E. Mattis, Marjorie M. Moissner, Marjorie Parkhill, Marie Prahll, Martha E. Rogers, Alice P. Sterner, Marguerite Stuerhk, Pearl Trilling, Marjorie Trotter, Don Walter, Charlotte H. Wesley, Helen Williams, and Frances M. Wilson.

RUTH STRANG

December, 1945

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I

Perspective and Program

For Life I had never cared greatly . . .

Anew I found nought to set eyes on,
When, lifting its hand,
It uncloaked a star,
Uncloaked it from fog-damps afar,
And showed its beams burning from pole to horizon
As bright as a brand.

And so, the rough highway forgetting,
I pace hill and dale
Regarding the sky,
Regarding the vision on high,
And thus re-illumed have no humor for letting
My pilgrimage fail.

THOMAS HARDY

I

STUDENTS' NEEDS; TEACHERS' OPPORTUNITIES

Without the combined guidance of parents, teachers, and other members of the community, children seldom make the best of themselves. Innumerable instances might be described in which teachers have played a leading role in students' lives. They have made the difference between happiness and unhappiness, between good citizenship and delinquency, between a gain and a loss to society. A few examples of how teachers have influenced the lives of their students for ill or for good will illumine the meaning of the phrase *personnel work* to be used repeatedly in this book.

✓ Some Opportunities for Personnel Work ✓

Needed: Concerted, Comprehensive Counseling. Sam had always been on his own. There was "Mom," of course, but she was tiny and frail; she used up her limited energy in doing the housework in their three-room cottage. When Sam went out, "Mom" always inquired, "Where ya goin', Sam?" And Sam always replied, "Downtown awhile, I guess." "Mom" had long since decided not to press the question. It was no use.

Sam's father worked hard three days a week in the mine. The other four days he spent playing pool or "soberin' up." He had never spent much time with his two boys. Why should he? Boys could take care of themselves. On the whole, Sam enjoyed his freedom.

Sam hadn't done so well in school. It just seemed as if he couldn't learn so well as the other "kids." He had "stuck" twice, in the first grade and again in the fifth. But he was going to do better when he went to the junior high school on the hill. He'd study hard and make good grades. Then he'd send his brother Ernie, who was on a destroyer "somewhere in the Pacific," a letter telling him about his good work in school and Ernie would be proud of him.

With these good intentions Sam came to junior high school. There were thirty-five boys and girls in his class. They came from all over town. There were representatives of all social groups, including several of Sam's economic level as well as the daughter of the bank president.

Sam's elementary school record had preceded him to the new school. First there was his "pink card," which, showing all his marks since the first grade, also supplied the information that he was fourteen years old, that he had been "left back" in two grades, that his IQ was 68 (according to an Otis Quick-Scoring Test given when he was in the fourth grade), and that he had been "sent on" to junior high school because of his size and age. The Teacher Estimate Card filled out by his sixth grade teacher contained the following items:

INTERESTS: None to speak of

CONDUCT: Fair

ATTENDANCE: Good

ABILITY: None

FAMILY BACKGROUND: Poor

HEALTH: Good

HOBBIES: None

PECULIARITIES: Indifferent

Obviously this record gives a better picture of the sixth grade teacher than of Sam.

For the first month Sam was excited and pleased with his new school. He ate in the cafeteria, went to assembly every Tuesday morning, and took gym twice a week. He really enjoyed gym. Larger and stronger than the other boys, he could lead in that class; and the shower afterward certainly made him feel good.

But in other respects he did not fare so well. It took him three days to become proficient at opening the combination on his locker. Twice delay in doing this made him late to class. He also had a hard time keeping up with his class and knowing where to go for each of the seven forty-five minute periods. In most of his classes he found that as soon as he got "settled down" and interested in what was going on, the buzzer would sound and he would have to find his way through the crowded corridor to some other class.

After he had got his schedule in hand, he learned that in most classes all you had to do was to sit still and listen. If you came to school on time and didn't talk too loudly in the hall, no one bothered you. Sam's grades were low. He failed four or five of the ten subjects. Hard as he tried, he couldn't pull those marks up to a D. If only there had been shop courses—he felt he could have been successful in them.

Thus Sam went through the first semester. He was usually friendly, well behaved, and well liked. True, his teachers "fussed at" him when he failed to prepare his assignments. But he had expected that and did not hold it against them. His homeroom teacher he really could have liked very much. She was friendly with him, but he had her only one period a week, and that he usually spent in study.

On the last day of the school year Sam was truly "let down" to learn that he had failed and would have to repeat the grade. He talked to his homeroom teacher about it, and she went to the principal to ask for a special promotion for the boy. The principal said, "You are new in this school, Miss M——. Otherwise you would know we never give a pupil a special promotion the first year he is in our school."

When September came, Sam did not start back to school. "What's the use?" he thought. He would get a job. But on the third day of school the attendance officer called at his home and told him that he would have to return. "You can't quit until you're sixteen or else fifteen and in the eighth grade, and then you have to get a work certificate." This was sad news for Sam, but there was nothing he could do about it. The following day he re-entered the seventh grade.

This year the children looked very little to him. Why, he was as big as the ninth grade boys, or bigger. And the work was the "same old stuff." Sam did not like the situation, and he frequently showed it. Sometimes he lost his temper. Once he "talked back" to his history teacher. The dean and teachers "just couldn't understand" how he had changed so from the docile boy he had been the year before.

The worst thing happened in November when the gym teacher called him into his office and said that the school had received complaints about the possibility of his having a "social disease." He would have to bring a note from his doctor. (There was no school physician.) "This is the limit!" thought Sam. "It will take my last two dollars, and all for nothing." But he had to do it, so he returned the next day with the doctor's note. From that day on, Sam seemed to be more and more "sour" on school, and he frequently said that he "sure would like to quit."

However, there was one bright spot in that school year. The music teacher had taken more than usual interest in Sam. It happened that she needed a novelty number for an assembly program she had volunteered to put on, and someone told her that Sam could play the guitar. She knew he had a fair voice.

Although it was against school practice to allow pupils who had discipline records or who were on the failing list to take part in assembly programs, Miss O—— finally persuaded the principal to let her use Sam. The number she finally worked out was a trio, three boys playing guitars and singing a "hillbilly" tune. For a week they practiced every afternoon. Sam was the proudest fellow in school as he strutted through the hall at 3:15 each day with his guitar slung over his shoulder. It took a lot of work to make the number presentable, but it went over well. The audience thoroughly enjoyed it, and Sam became a person of importance—at least for a day.

In planning the annual tea dance in April the committee decided to include the guitar trio in the floor show. But the day before the dance, Sam had a falling out with one of the other two about the number they would play. When he could

not have his way, he said, "All right, I won't play at all." The other two boys performed without him, and the judges awarded them the prize of two dollars. Sam heard about this when he came to school the next day.

From that day on Sam became more and more of a problem. He "picked on" the smaller boys; he refused to study; he frequently lost his temper; and he was continually being scolded by teachers. One day the principal was called in to settle a dispute between Sam and another boy, which the teacher was afraid she could not control. The principal talked the matter over with both boys and showed each where he had erred. After the other boy had returned to the class, the principal talked further with Sam: "Sam, you have become quite a problem. It seems that you just will not cooperate. You'll have to turn in your textbooks and then go home and get a note from your father stating that he knows you are being dropped from school."

At that, Sam's face brightened. His eyes beamed. "You mean I can quit school?" he asked.

Two days later, Sam came to the principal's office. He presented the note from his father: "I no Sam is expeld from skool. George Birch." He also paid for the two books he had lost. The boy seemed to be perfectly happy and in a big hurry.

"Sam," the principal said, "there are some of your personal possessions that you may take with you: your dictionary, art materials, and gym suit."

"I don't have time to collect them right now. I have to be at work by nine o'clock. I'll come for them some day. I got a job at the P—— Tool Company. I won't need a work certificate. I told them I was seventeen and they believed me. Well, good-by. I won't be a bother to you any more. Got to go to work now." When school closed in June, Sam had not yet returned for his personal belongings.

Here was a boy, coming hopefully to junior high school, who found no one there concerned enough about his best development to learn his abilities and interests and to make available the instruction, recreation, and work experiences that he needed. His homeroom and music teachers were

bright spots in the situation. They were friendly and understanding. Against so many unfavorable influences, however, they could avail little. They were hampered by lack of time, by rigid school policies, by Sam's unsuitable program, and by lack of understanding and helpful cooperation on the part of Sam's other teachers.

The most encouraging element in this situation was Sam himself. Despite the repeated failure of his home, school, and community to provide the experiences and counsel he needed, he did not become permanently apathetic or delinquent. His natural resiliency once more asserted itself as soon as he found the chance to work.

It is easy to list the lost opportunities for personnel work in this case. First was the failure of the elementary school to find out what kind of a boy they were teaching and to send on to high school a record that contained some positive facts on which to build.

Second was the junior high school's failure to use even so inadequate an elementary school record for what it was worth. And it was worth something: it showed beyond question the need for modification of the academic curriculum to meet Sam's needs.

Third, this modification was not made. Yet the principal could have planned with Sam a program that would have made it possible for the boy to realize his initial hopes for success. This program would have included English and social studies, gymnasium, music, and, if possible, supervised part-time work experience. Thus Sam could have been learning and earning, as well as correcting personality faults that, if aggravated, might have caused difficulty in his work as well as in his school relations. He would have moved ahead with his own age group in those few subjects that, with more time to study and more skillful instruction, he could have comprehended. Under these conditions he could have reached the highest achievement of which he was capable.

Fourth, the junior high school did little to orient the bewildered child to its strange, confusing methods and subjects and its rapid shifts from teacher to teacher.

Fifth, the school should have had an adequate health serv-

ice to protect all pupils from danger of infection and insure adequate medical care for those pupils who could not afford a private physician.

Sixth, there should have been a personnel program. There should have been competent counselors, each having a limited number of counselees whom he could know well and whose needs he could meet by drawing on the resources in the school and the community.

Seventh, the group as a whole—teachers and pupils—lacked vision. They needed to see one another as persons with diverse gifts that could be developed for the welfare of all.

Teacher Against a Delinquent Society. Teachers often have to work to offset the destructive effects of the social environment.

This is the story of a young teacher appointed in the middle of a term to take the place of a home economics teacher who was suffering from a "nervous breakdown." The school was situated in a neighborhood full of poolrooms, taverns, and all sorts of conditions conducive to delinquency. Each week end was filled with excitement; sometimes there was a murder resulting from a drunken brawl. The children came to school with stories of these happenings, together with the comments and reactions that they picked up from adults. Some of the older boys and girls who had too much money were bribing the younger ones not to tell their parents what they were doing.

Most of the parents, however, were too busy earning money, drinking, or gambling to bother or even care about what was happening to their children. Some were working in neighboring towns and were home only week ends. They expected their older children or neighbors to care for their younger ones. Consequently, these children were ill fed, dirty, and sleepy in school.

The housing situation was also bad. The homes were overcrowded and had few modern facilities or comforts. Many families seemed indifferent to their surroundings and took poor care of the equipment they had. About 40 per

cent, however, were buying homes; the rest were transients.

Despite these bad conditions, the children were fairly intelligent. Of course, they would have used their ability better had they been receiving suitable guidance and instruction. They usually neglected their lessons, and their attendance at school was very irregular. Talent was there, but little was being done toward developing it.

The new teacher got the impression that the principal and teachers were not greatly concerned about the situation. Indeed, the school's chief interest seemed to be in making a good football record. It was rumored that the games were not on the level and that members of the community were using them as betting devices and paying off the team for their own advantage. Some of the players were not even registered in school; others attended only during the football season.

In contrast with other members of the faculty, the new teacher was greatly concerned about these conditions. She made contacts with the more constructive elements in the community by attending church, playing the piano for Sunday school, and teaching a Sunday-school class. As she became acquainted, she spoke with these people of her plans for improving conditions and secured their support. At the invitation of some of her pupils, she visited their homes and thus became acquainted with their families.

She started a parent-teacher association but had difficulty in getting parents and teachers to attend; they were too busy or just not interested. However, the attendance gradually improved, and parents began taking more interest in the activities of the school. They successfully sponsored a community sing and a supper to help buy equipment for the school.

To fill the need for wholesome recreation, the teacher sponsored several clubs. She organized a Friday night social club for the older boys and girls. This group met in different homes, with the home economics students serving as hostesses. The girls took pride in preparing the refreshments and in having their homes as clean and attractive as possible for the meeting. The group played games, sang, made candy,

and went hiking or picknicking as the weather permitted. Another group organized a softball team which proved to be popular. The dramatic club gave a successful play and used the money to finance the junior-senior prom, the first invitational dance ever held in the school.

In order to improve home conditions, the home economics classes arranged exhibits of food and clothing. Some of the girls made dresses, blouses, and other useful items. A group of boys formed their own cooking class and had fun cooking and serving food. They planned a luncheon for the trustees, selected their committees, and worked out every detail themselves. This luncheon was a huge success.

The teacher found the pupils receptive to these new activities. She gained their confidence and encouraged them to come to her whenever they wanted to think through personal problems or get help in their group activities.

However, her success aroused so much jealousy among other members of the staff that the principal, who seemed more concerned about his popularity with his staff than about the welfare of the pupils, did not rehire her at the end of the term.

This teacher recognized that she was dealing with a delinquent school and a delinquent society rather than with delinquent children. She saw the potentialities for good in these boys and girls. She provided them with wholesome, enjoyable activities as a substitute for those less desirable and encouraged them to take more and more responsibility for initiating and conducting their own social events and club meetings. All of this was excellent. With the proper support and cooperation this program would eventually have made an important contribution to better living in that community.

However, she tried to carry too much of the program herself, instead of working with and through key teachers and natural leaders among pupils and parents who had caught her vision of better home and family life. Her departure left no one in the school to sponsor these newly organized activities, and the pupils may then have become more discouraged than they were before this teacher came to their rescue.

One does well to remember that group work is highly important in any personnel program; for personal development is influenced by the interaction that takes place in the home, school, and neighborhood environment as well as by counseling. Children, like trees and flowers, flourish when conditions are favorable. There is truth as well as humor in Don Marquis' comment:

In the outlines of former systems there has always been a great deal of discussion as to whether children should be brought up at home or brought up by the state.

In our system they will not be brought up at all; they will be allowed to bring themselves up; they will be *surrounded by the proper influence*, and simply come up, unconscious of any up-bringing.¹

Teachers are often up against bad conditions in the school and the community. Until these conditions are improved, their counseling efforts resemble a futile flapping of wings. The teacher cannot close her eyes to conditions in the community.

In another community the home economics and physical education teachers took the lead in making a community survey, which showed that many children were badly in need of food, clothing, recreation, and proper supervision after school hours. Emergency measures were taken to improve conditions. The home economics department served breakfast every school-day morning to children recommended by the faculty. Free lunches were given to needy children. The "Reclamation Club" in the clothing department constructed suitable children's clothing out of garments which had been donated by teachers and other members of the community. At intervals sales were held at which these garments were sold. The money thus obtained was used to buy new material to supply a graduation outfit for a student or articles needed for summer camp.

Health talks, pictures, and demonstrations taught students and parents how to maintain cleanliness and health under

¹ Don Marquis, *The Almost Perfect State*, p. 28. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Garden City, New York, 1927.

boom-town conditions. The school also took the initiative in calling together a community council of interested persons: ministers of all denominations, leaders from parent-teacher associations, doctors, nurses, social workers, representatives of the Women's Bureau of the Police Department and of the Attendance Department, and others. This council sponsored seminars, mother-daughter and father-son meetings, and parent-education groups, some held in the school building and others, designated as block meetings, held in homes. Panel discussions, demonstrations, and visual materials on housing, food, clothing, health, child care, consumer education, parent education, and guidance gave real help on the immediate problems. A teen-age canteen, conducted on Friday evenings from seven to ten-thirty, was planned by a committee of students, teachers, and parents, and tickets were issued through the homerooms. In these ways teachers worked with other persons and agencies in the community to change conditions that would have defeated any attempts at guidance within the school itself. They realized that guidance that does not lead to better living is futile.

"Too Little and Too Late." The futility of focusing attention on problems, instead of on a preventive, developmental personnel program, has been repeatedly demonstrated in cases like the following:

John, a sixteen-year-old pupil in a junior high school, was older and taller than his classmates. He had a scar on his face that repeatedly provoked comment from the other pupils. He shunned his classmates and was slovenly in dress and in appearance. His attitude in the classroom was one of indifference, and he often "talked back" to teachers. He was frequently late and often played truant. He had an after-school job as a busboy in a restaurant. The hours were long and irregular, and instead of going home to sleep after work, he frequented dance halls.

John had entered school when he was seven years old and had done well, excelling in arithmetic and athletics. His skill in playing ball and swimming had made him popular with his classmates. He had been known as a "happy-go-lucky

fellow." In his fourteenth year, however, two events occurred that were largely responsible for the marked change in his behavior. First, his schooling was interrupted by an automobile accident that hospitalized him for a year and left the scar on his face. Soon after his return home from the hospital, his father died, leaving his mother with insufficient income to care for her family of five. Now overage for his class, he entered the junior high school with an ugly scar and unable to participate in sports. This created a situation to which even the most emotionally stable individual would have difficulty in adjusting.

No one helped John to make this difficult adjustment. No one attempted to explain his situation to the other pupils, who more or less thoughtlessly nicknamed him "Scarface" or "Clumsy." No one obtained any information about his assets and how they might be developed. He was not given the prestige of being named as manager of the sport in which he had previously excelled. No contact was made with a social agency to help increase the economic security of his home. No one offered him any effective counseling to help him gain a new orientation to his changed conditions.

The consequences were that he suffered complete failure and unhappiness in school, had recourse to undesirable recreation, and finally incurred a serious physical breakdown that required a long period of hospitalization in a tuberculosis hospital.

At the hospital someone contacted the social service department, and the boy's anxiety about his family was relieved. He is now enjoying a beneficial, uncomplicated rest. He has obtained enough understanding of his disease to know that his cooperation and adherence to rules will aid in his recovery. He is well liked by his fellow patients and is doing some systematic reading and studying.

John's transition from the controlled environment of the hospital to unfavorable conditions in the outside world will be difficult. For this adjustment he should be prepared by skillful counseling through which he may gain a picture of his more acceptable self and be convinced of the possibility of developing further the many good qualities he showed in

his preadolescent years. He should be helped to make an appraisal of his abilities and to obtain suitable educational experiences and preparation for a satisfying vocation.

This case illustrates the need for continuity in personnel work, beginning in the early years and leading into satisfactory adult adjustments to work, to family, and to civic life. If the junior high school teacher-counselor had known this boy in his happier early years and had recognized the possible psychological effects of his accident and of the changes in his economic status and family constellation, she could have helped him to focus his attention on his assets and plan a program of remunerative work, school work, and recreation that would have contributed to his health, his intellectual and social development, and his vocational proficiency. Furthermore, by her example and casual comments, the counselor could gradually develop among the students a personnel point of view: a spirit that finds satisfaction in the self-realization of others. This spirit in itself would have a beneficial therapeutic effect in a case such as John's.

An Ounce of Prevention. Albert, at eleven years of age, was a well-formed boy with clean-cut features and a winning smile. When he entered the fifth grade, he seemed to get along well with the other children. When he engaged in conversation, his manner was pleasant and sociable. Generally he was neatly dressed when he came to school; he seemed to care about his personal appearance. However, after several weeks his teacher, Miss L——, noticed a change in his appearance and manner. Whereas before he had looked rested and cheerful in the morning, he now seemed worn and pale. Along with this change in appearance, the teacher also noticed a growing tendency to quarrel and to "show off."

As soon as she became aware of these changes, Miss L—— went to the records to get perspective. In the descriptive summaries made by previous teachers she found the same general picture: neatness, a good start, a gradually physical letdown, and attempts to gain attention.

As the record did little more than raise the question, "Why?" Miss L—— sought further for the causes of Al-

bert's annual slumps. She asked his mother, Mrs. B——, to come to the school. In the course of a long talk, the teacher gained much understanding of the conditions that were affecting Albert's school behavior. She learned that the mother, who was young, tended to protect the boy, while the much older father was inclined to be harsh and to give Albert no companionship. The father had troubles of his own; he had nearly failed in business, apparently because of a partner's duplicity. In order to increase the family income, the mother went out to work, leaving Albert alone with the maid. Mrs. B—— said that Albert's play experiences had been unfortunate. The neighborhood children had led him into sex practices that made him feel guilty and anxious for several years afterward.

At the end of this conversation Albert came in and the three talked together. He realized that he was losing his friends in school and talked about ways in which he could keep them. Together they worked out a program for school and for home hours. As he followed this plan, with the help of his parents and teachers, his morale and work improved. When at times there was a slump, Miss L—— never seemed discouraged but helped him to find the causes for it and recover the lost ground. Her attitude toward him was one of positive expectancy.

As the year went on, the slumps became fewer. Albert seemed brighter and more cheerful and did better school work. He also became a regular member of a fine Scout troop. In another visit with his mother, Miss L—— learned that she was now working only part time and could be closer to the boy. The father also had become interested in Albert's improvement.

Although Albert was promoted from Miss L——'s class at the end of the year, she continued her interest in him. His later teachers told her that, although he occasionally got into difficulty, he was generally reliable and steady. He became a fine-looking boy, tall and strong, and a popular member of the high school baseball team. From the fifth grade on, he made rapid progress toward becoming a responsible and socially acceptable member of society.

Without stepping outside her role as a teacher, Miss L—— appears to have made a great difference in Albert's life. Boys of this age are often at the crossroads, and sometimes one teacher's guidance determines which road they will take. She did nothing spectacular; her personnel work could be summed up in a few sentences:

1. The teacher observed individual children in her class, and when they seemed to be slipping back rather than growing she asked, "Why?"

2. She went to the records to gain perspective on how the child had been growing previously, not to find evidence to support her unfavorable impressions.

3. Realizing that school difficulties often arise out of poor home and neighborhood conditions, she had a long talk with the mother. The mother and the teacher contributed each to the other's understanding of the boy.

4. They took Albert into their confidence, and all three worked out a better program for his home and school life. In the carrying out of this program he was supported by other teachers as well as by both parents. He gradually acquired technics of dealing with his problems.

5. The teacher maintained a fine relationship with the boy: accepting, hopeful, friendly, encouraging. She kept in touch with him for several years, during which time the assurance of her interest and faith doubtless reinforced his determination to keep on improving.

This case, in marked contrast to the preceding one, shows how the continuity of a teacher's guidance may lead to personal happiness and social usefulness.

Guidance Through a Relationship. Bill's interest was baseball. He had real ability in the game, plus an easy-going personality that enabled him to get along with everybody. During his first year in high school he not only played soccer, basketball, and baseball, but also was active in the dramatic club and the student council. He did a good job everywhere and consequently was called on by everybody.

Obviously he was too busy to study, and when, in his junior year, he began to explore his future vocational plans, college

seemed a vague possibility. Before the end of his junior year, however, he decided to go to college and to become a doctor. His science teacher advised him to study the catalogues of a number of colleges in which he was interested. In his senior year he selected a university away from home that he could enter in spite of his poor scholastic record. It had a good medical school, and was moderate in cost.

His parents, however, were reluctant to let their only son go so far away from home. Bill asked the teacher who had been interested all the while in his plans to discuss the matter with his parents. His parents did not speak English very well, but fortunately the teacher spoke their native language fluently and discussed Bill's future plans with them from all angles.

During his senior year this teacher tried to impress Bill with the need of concentrating on his subjects and cutting down on his extracurricular activities. Before he went to the university the teacher helped him to realize that pre-medical work would require a great deal more time than he had given to his studies at high school and that he could not participate extensively in sports or social activities.

During his college years Bill kept in touch with his high school teacher. Although he did only mediocre work the first half year, he eventually became convinced of the necessity of concentrating his efforts on study. He graduated from college with good grades, and is now in his second year of medical school.

Undoubtedly this high school teacher was influential in helping Bill to make the best of himself. The essence of the teacher's successful guidance was his genuine interest in the boy and his respect for him. This fine fundamental relationship needed reinforcement along several lines:

1. The results of standardized scholastic aptitude and achievement tests would have corroborated the teacher's conviction that the boy had the ability to prepare for, enter, and succeed in a medical college.

2. An earlier and more systematic exploration of the boy's interests and abilities, as indicated by his performance and satisfaction in his previous school, work, and recreational

experiences, would have given further evidence of his qualifications for entering the medical profession.

3. Skillful interviewing would have helped the boy to make a more thorough and thoughtful appraisal of himself and to make more carefully considered plans for the future.

Yet, judged by its results, this teacher's guidance was effective. He probably was a good observer and a good synthesizer of the impressions he gained from many conversations and class discussions. In his interviews, he may have applied the scientific method, with which he was familiar, to the solution of personal developmental problems. Apparently his relationship with the boy was free from domination. He seemed to consider himself as a resource in helping Bill to think through his future educational and vocational plans. This attitude is in line with the best counseling procedure.

These glimpses of guidance at work illustrate ways in which teachers have met, or have failed to meet, students' needs. Through counseling, through sponsoring informal group activities, through a relationship of mutual respect, through helping to create a more favorable environment, the teacher finds opportunities to help children and young people achieve the best development of which they are capable. In the remaining pages of this chapter, students' needs and teachers' resources to meet these needs will be described more fully.

✓ The Teachers Students Would Like to Have ✓

Students need guidance-minded teachers. In no uncertain words they describe the kind of teachers they want: understanding, friendly teachers who know their students and give more attention to them as individuals than most teachers do at present. The following direct quotations are from high school students in the United States and Canada:

Guidance would be improved if teachers would regard students as individuals like themselves.

There is need for more friendliness between pupils and teachers. I think some method should be devised to get pupils and

teachers to know one another better—a club or bowling league perhaps in which both pupils and teachers participate.

I think the teachers should take a more personal interest in each pupil and make him feel as though someone besides his parents and friends outside of school were interested in his development and advancement.

Teachers should obtain a more intimate knowledge of conditions existing in the pupil's home and in his mind. All teachers should take a course in psychology to be able to understand the pupils with whom they work.

Teachers should find out what each pupil intends to be and compare his intentions with the ability he possesses. If they do this, many pupils will go into the world with more confidence in themselves, rather than with the attitude that life is a gamble and, if you strike the right spot, you are one of the lucky fellows. The worst thing a teacher could do is to make pupils discouraged. A teacher should tell a pupil of his faults privately, not talk about them with other teachers in the teachers' room.

If teachers would help students solve their personal problems, the students would look up to the teachers as friends to whom they could turn in need.

Pupils also want teachers who give skillful instruction. They express this idea in various ways:

Teachers should give us more explanations. They should also control their tempers and not demoralize us by telling us that we are dumb.

I wish teachers could get on our level and see the problems from our point of view. We have interests, but the school doesn't seem to know it. They ought to see what we really do, and help us do it better.

High school students need inspiration and drive. They have what it takes, but their potentialities are misdirected and wasted.

Most of all, I wish I had learned to study. I am not dumb and if anyone had tried at all I think I could learn. If teachers would test less and teach more, we'd learn better.

More specifically, they express their need for educational and vocational guidance:

What do we know about college? Nothing. We are never told about the courses or subjects we can take there, and the use they would be to us.

We need an experienced person to instruct us regarding different vocations, giving in full detail the advantages and disadvantages of each and advising individuals who are aspiring to a particular field whether they are suited for it or not.

Not all the pupils' comments are in this critical vein. Many express appreciation of their teachers and their school:

I always felt free to ask for help and got it in the answers given. I found the teachers were both good teachers and good friends.

The most popular teacher in a girls' trade school was described as "short, sort of chubby, has gray hair and is very nice to the girls"; "nice and easy to get along with"; "lots of fun"; "kind and not grouchy." "She gave me information about the school and helped me find my way around." "She gave me a lot of help about personal hygiene." "She never seemed too busy to talk with me." "When I got a low mark in a subject, she went to the teacher and asked her about my work." "She made me feel at home, and got me into the spirit of the school." "She likes me and trusts me." These comments by non-academic pupils suggest the qualities in teachers that they appreciate most.

After students have left school, they look back and tell us what teachers have done or have failed to do for them. One graduate, now in college, recommended

a course in effective thinking. If well presented, this course would help the student in distinguishing the important from the trivial, the logical from the illogical.

Another graduate wrote:

I wish there had been someone to encourage me (for I greatly lack self-confidence), at least in trying for a scholarship. I doubt that I could have won one, but at least I would have had the satisfaction of knowing that I didn't pass up any opportunities but did my best to get ahead.

One boy expressed appreciation of the excellent instruction in algebra and geometry, the good foundation in Latin, and

the conversational training in Spanish that he had received. Of the instruction in English, on the other hand, he was very critical:

I wish I had had a halfway decent training in English in my freshman and sophomore years. I learned practically nothing in either year that I hadn't already learned in the seventh and eighth grades.

The friendly, happy, considerate teacher puts a child at ease in the classroom. By thus freeing him from tension and anxiety, he helps him to use his abilities to the fullest. The well-informed, unprejudiced teacher is able to help young people think critically and clearly on social problems that touch them closely. The teacher who has a well-defined purpose in life is helpful to younger persons seeking values and perspective.

Burnham² believes that great teachers have in common the following characteristics:

1. Devotion to an absorbing task which gives unity and zest to life. Fortunately, teaching is a vocation that has the potential value of creating a better society through making desirable changes in individuals.

2. Wide and varied interests that help to promote emotional balance. A variety of interests and affections is insurance against loss or failure in one area of life.

3. Power to focus attention on the present situation: the ability to mobilize one's whole personality for the task at hand. Burnham says that teachers tend too often to do their work three times over: first, in dread and anxiety in preparing their classwork; second, in their actual teaching; third, in thinking it over afterward and regretting that it was not done differently and better.³ The distinction, of course, is to be made between constructive reflection and the futile, wasteful regretting to which Burnham refers.

4. The habit of facing reality in an objective way. A person has the alternative of facing a difficulty or of trying to

² See William H. Burnham, *Great Teachers and Mental Health*. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1926.

³ William H. Burnham, "Growth Through Mental Hygiene," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 17:105-106, April, 1928.

escape from it by daydreaming, rationalizing, blaming someone else, or using other avenues of avoiding the truth. If the teacher is objective, he centers his attention on things external to himself, tries to get a clear conception of students' points of view, and takes an active attitude in the face of difficulty.

Objectivity, however, does not imply lack of sympathy and understanding. Taking an objective attitude toward one's students is not incompatible with loving them. A genuine interest in each individual and a concern for his welfare is a necessary background for effective work with individuals. It is possible to be concerned about the very real bewilderment of normal boys and girls without becoming sentimental. The teacher can be both unsentimental and kind.

5. Orderly association of ideas. Socrates and other great teachers have been characterized by orderly, coherent, clear, and logical thinking. They emphasized one simple fundamental truth at a time. Teachers who possess this ability for orderly association aid the student to acquire a similar habit both by their example and by helping him to reduce the chaos of his thinking on the problem under consideration to an orderly sequence.

6. Ability to inspire confidence. When a teacher is successful and happy, he meets new problems with zest; he is convincing; his voice inspires confidence; and his mental and physical energy is at a higher level than average. It is important that students have confidence in their teacher and feel that he is there not to censure but to understand.

7. Emotional maturity. There is real danger when a teacher seeks emotional satisfaction by having immature students dependent upon him. Instead of helping them to develop independence and a capacity to make their own adjustments to life, the teacher whose own life lacks normal emotional outlets enjoys keeping students dependent upon him for continuous guidance. Moreover, a teacher should be able to solve his own personal problems. If he is worried and troubled about many things, if he has emotional conflicts, fears, and fixations, or deep-seated emotional difficulties, these maladjustments may show themselves in his behavior

toward students. If a teacher has had difficulties of these kinds and has learned how to free himself from them so that he is able to walk confidently and unafraid, the experience will be of great value to him in understanding students.

In their own behalf, as well as for the students' sake, teachers should guard against overfatigue, foci of infection, and poor eating habits. Their schedule should include:

A ten-minute rest period morning and afternoon, preferably with their pupils.

Part of the noon period spent out of doors on sunny days.

Relaxing, out-of-door recreation.

Social affairs that have the most health value with the least expenditure of time; for example, luncheons and suppers.

Creative art and handwork; gardening.

Selected radio programs.

Community service that they are best prepared to render and that does not conflict with their other responsibilities or cause overfatigue.

By planning their days to the best advantage, teachers improve their personal and professional fitness.

✓ Needs Shown by Case Studies and Surveys ✓

Case studies usually reveal a need for affection, most of all from parents, secondarily from teachers. Closely allied to the security that comes from being loved is the self-confidence that grows out of having work that one can do successfully. Self-confidence is reinforced by persons who encourage young people to take suitable responsibility and who expect the best of them. In fulfilling these responsibilities, they satisfy another vital need, namely, that of being accepted as useful members of their family, school, and neighborhood. Underlying these emotional conditions is the need for a foundation of sound health or, in the case of the handicapped, an acceptance of limitations imposed by irremediable physical impairments.

Surveys of personnel work have indicated the need for educational and vocational guidance and for modifications of curricula and instruction. The common discrepancy between students' school marks and their scholastic aptitude indicates the need for courses suited to their ability, for more effective and individualized instruction, for guidance in making out programs, and for counseling to help them know themselves and, in some cases, resolve inner conflicts that are preventing them from using their energy to good advantage.

Reading ability below grade level indicates the need for instruction and practice in reading in each subject, plus remedial work for students who cannot profit from class instruction without individual help.

The fact that many able students suddenly realize in their senior year that they cannot enter college points to the need for earlier counseling with respect to future educational plans. This counseling should provide information about ways and means of winning scholarships, if financial aid is needed. That so many students make vocational choices on an inadequate basis shows that they need a knowledge of fields of work. They should be helped to make a tentative, flexible choice of an appropriate field on the basis of self-knowledge and knowledge of vocations, gained, to some extent, from part-time work experience.

The wide range of personal maladjustments revealed by any survey calls attention to the need for providing better conditions for growing up, group discussion of common problems, and counseling that will help the individual to see more clearly his most acceptable self and how to attain it. The feeling of social inadequacy common to so many high school and college students suggests the need for expert leadership in group work and more opportunities for students to take responsibility and increase their self-esteem.

The prevalence of uncorrected physical defects and health that is below par indicates the need for more thorough health examinations, health guidance and instruction. It may indicate unhealthful school and community conditions that require social action or the attention of public health authorities.

↵ The Teacher's Role in Personnel Work ↵

In addition to a familiarity with the technics of counseling and group work, which will be described in Part III, teachers who are qualified to do personnel work possess vision. They see in each student a pattern of potentialities and they see in school a place where these potentialities are discovered, appraised, and developed through suitable work and play. They see gifted students developing their special talents, and handicapped students living fully within their limitations. They see students going willingly to school and withdrawing only when outside-of-school experiences offer better opportunities than the school can provide.

They realize that the end results of personnel work are persons: persons who are growing toward their full stature, who get along well with others and are sensitive to their needs, who have chosen, prepared for, and progressed in vocations that are personally satisfying and socially useful—persons who are able to fuse their individual, national, racial, religious, and social interests with the welfare of all humanity.

Recognizing that the school works within “a vortex of destructive forces,” the teacher with vision is challenged rather than discouraged. Instead of trying to protect the individual from the evil influences in society, he will help each student, within the limits of his maturity of comprehension, to see the destructive nature of these influences, to look forward to possible reforms, and to adjust to conditions that cannot be immediately changed.

The teacher's work is of world-wide importance. A better world can be achieved only through the building of better people. In order to make progress toward a decent world—a world free “from needless hatreds, from unjust inequalities, and from devastating misery”—the teachers in schools and colleges must work with other agencies that have the same end in view.

Despite pressure for immediate results, despite lack of sym-

pathy and understanding on the part of pupils, parents, and other persons, teachers should not lose faith in their students or in the future. If teachers cannot fully realize their ideals, they should nevertheless not feel discouraged. Probably no one works with students who does not have his ups and downs, who does not feel that he might have done better. Happiness for teachers, as for all human beings, lies in living fully in the present, not in attaining a distant goal, but in overcoming obstacles day by day and in the very process of striving to approach that remote destination. Each person is limited by his situation and must work within that framework. A teacher can count himself successful in personnel work:

1. If he can maintain a relationship of trust and confidence even though he has to disapprove a student's conduct.
2. If he can help a student achieve a clearer idea of his more acceptable self, a sense of direction, and hope for the future.
3. If he can persuade adults and others in the student's immediate environment to expect the best of him.
4. If he can discover the student's most pressing needs and make provision for them by using resources in the school and the community.
5. If he can build on the positive elements in the situation and never deprive the student of his few legitimate satisfactions.
6. If he can learn enough about a new student to help him "get off to a good start," rather than neglect him until serious problems demand attention.
7. If he can gradually get the personnel point of view accepted and practiced by other members of the faculty and by students.

Perhaps the best criterion by which to judge the success of his work is his degree of enjoyment in it. Is it fun? Does he enjoy human nature even more than he enjoys objects of natural beauty? Is he child-conscious?

Nothing is more important for teachers' own mental health than the conviction that they are socially useful and that they

are working in the interest of mankind, present and future. Theirs is the intricate world of child development and guidance. More than any other group of persons, teachers can help to bring to pass another Golden Age where the development of the individual is considered the first law of life. As teachers see themselves in a strategic position, working toward world betterment, they overcome their feeling of inferiority; their sense of worth increases; they feel that life is worth living. If they are successful in their work, they no longer have a need to dominate others, to rival others, to gain prestige. Without a sense of the far-reaching importance of their work, teachers often become worn, flurried, or hardened. They need to be sensitized to the wide implications of their activities.

However, even the most well-balanced teacher may succumb to intolerable conditions. If it is true that society has a great responsibility for its gifted students, then it also has responsibility for its eager, resourceful, intelligent young teachers.

Too often administrators help to create "problem teachers." Unfortunately, also, teachers who have not achieved personal and professional security are not willing to accept excellence or success in others. Having too high a level of aspiration and too great a desire for power, and not having learned to live within their limitations, they are in a constant state of tension. They do not expect to find happiness in their work. They are jealous, always on the defensive, disparaging of others. They resent another teacher's success with a student with whom they have failed. They are jealous of the friendly relationship another teacher has with parents. Frequently these feelings take the form of gossip or of out-and-out hostility to the successful teacher, and sometimes they result in his transfer to another school. This is one of the principal's most serious personnel problems. How to deal with it is discussed in Chapter III.

Home conditions as well as school conditions are sometimes not conducive to the best mental health of teachers. Many women teachers are young, unmarried, transient, and discontented. They live alone—and do not like it; or they live

with their families and are burdened with home duties and dependents.⁴

Conditions in the community are no better. Teachers lack companionship, wholesome recreation, and the luxury of leisure. In many towns and rural communities, teachers are expected to suppress their individuality and conform to a stereotype. "The teacher is psychologically isolated from the community because he must live in the teacher stereotype."⁵ It is rarely that a community provides such spacious and beautiful living quarters for teachers as are described in one instance: a remodeled private home, containing four apartments surrounded by lawn and shrubbery and garden plots in back. Here it was possible for each teacher to feel the "quietude of earth" after her day's work.

What are citizens doing to encourage teachers? In 1943 they were paying them an average salary that was about \$400 less than the average salary of factory workers and federal employees; they were paying half of the rural teachers in America less than \$670 a year. They are blaming teachers for everything that goes wrong: for juvenile delinquency, for physical defects highlighted by the draft, and for the "shocking" lack of knowledge of isolated facts in American history. If teachers are responsible for deficiencies, are they not also responsible for the millions of law-abiding young citizens, for the large percentage of men in service who were found to be in fine physical condition, for all the good citizens? Teachers are people. They need security, recognition, approval, and appreciation, just as other workers do.

For the good of the students, if for no other reason, conditions must be promoted which are conducive to good mental health among teachers. Some of these are (1) more effective procedures of selecting teachers; (2) better medical and mental hygiene services for teachers; (3) provision of a "listening post"—someone who will let teachers think through their problems in his presence; (4) administrative measures that

⁴ Theresa Pyle, *A Study of the Teacher's Dependency Load*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1939.

⁵ Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching*, p. 49. John Wiley and Son, New York, 1930.

give a maximum of security to the teacher through the organization and policies of the school, the personality of the administrator, and the presence of supervisors who appreciate and encourage originality and skillful teaching; and (5) an improved community attitude toward teachers: a public that is appreciative and ready to praise teachers for the good work that they do with their children and to pay them salaries that will enable them to serve well by living fully.

There is no substitute for a teacher who is a real person. On him the success of education depends. During years of war large numbers of teachers voluntarily left the field of education. Those who did not desert the school children of the country in time of special need must surely, in their less discouraged moments, find deep satisfaction in helping children develop according to their own best pattern and thus make their unique and important contribution to the building of the world of tomorrow.

✓ A Clarification of Basic Concepts ✓

At this point let us try to clarify certain concepts already mentioned: education, personnel work, guidance, counseling.

Education is the process of learning through experiences. Some of these experiences the school systematically supplies; still more are offered by life outside the school. The result of education should be continuous growth toward one's best self. But this growth can take place only if appropriate experiences are available and if the individual takes advantage of them.

Here is where *personnel work* enters. It aims to know the individual, to help him choose the experiences he needs, and to guide him to the fullest use of these experiences. Its purpose is, not only to help him get full value from his environment as it is, but to improve this environment whenever possible. Personnel work is a fundamental aspect of education that focuses its attention on helping every individual to develop the best in him as an individual and as a member of groups. It is a process of helping persons to

understand themselves by discovering their own needs, interests, and capacities; to formulate their own goals and to make plans for realizing them; and to evaluate their progress with reference, not only to self-realization, but also to potential contribution to the welfare of society.

The process by which this aim is achieved is called by many names. In the preschool, it is commonly called *child development*; in the elementary school, *child guidance*; in the secondary school, *guidance*; and in college and industry, *personnel work*. *Pupil adjustment* and *fitting the school to pupil* are other phrases descriptive of the process of making provision for individual needs and capacities.

Counseling is a face-to-face relationship in which growth occurs on the part of both counselor and student.

Obviously personnel work is not an "extra," a fad, or a frill; it is an essential part of good education. It has always been so. Wherever and whenever teachers have been concerned with helping each individual to realize his potentialities, they have exemplified the personnel point of view and rendered guidance services. Confucius treated his students as "his own beloved sons" and was able to offer personal comments—"praises and sighs"—to most of his three thousand disciples.

Personnel work, in some sort of spiritual way, must pervade the entire school. It ought to be like fresh air—so natural and pervasive a part of our total living that we scarcely ever bother even to talk about it. Sometime the words *guidance* and *personnel work* may drop out of education entirely.

Through the centuries, teachers have guided students sometimes wisely and well and sometimes with irrevocable harm. As the policy of the school gradually changed from individual to large group instruction, the difficulty of giving adequate guidance to each student increased. Morrison says that the school must do systematically and on a large scale what could be done and often was done informally by the old village schoolmaster.⁶ There have always been teachers

⁶ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 641. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926.

who enjoyed contacts with students and to whom students went for counsel. At a later date, when the importance of this service was more clearly appreciated, faculty advisers were appointed. In many institutions special personnel officers have been added to supplement and coordinate the guidance work of the faculty.

In the early days of the guidance movement the term *vocational guidance* was widely used. Since this term was rather cumbersome, the first word was dropped and *guidance* came to mean "vocational guidance." But in practice it soon became evident that *educational* guidance and *vocational* guidance are inseparable.

Later, the concept of guidance expanded to include individual development through many life activities. Brewer, in his *Education as Guidance*, includes in addition to a discussion of educational and vocational guidance chapters on guidance for home relationships, guidance for citizenship, guidance in right-doing, guidance in thoughtfulness and co-operation, religious guidance, guidance in personal well-being, guidance for leisure and recreation, and guidance in wholesome and cultural action.

What explanation can be given for this expansion in the concept of guidance? Both a theoretical and a practical reason may account for the increased inclusiveness of the term *guidance*. The emphasis on the "whole child" that has permeated the philosophy of education has drawn attention to the psychological and physiological unity of the individual. This idea has been emphasized especially by the Gestalt school of psychology. Since guidance is concerned with people, it must consider the interrelated aspects of personality.

The expansion of the meaning of *guidance* resulted from practical experience as well as from theory. Counselors soon realized that a conference with an individual can rarely be confined to one aspect of his life. Social, physical, emotional, intellectual, and moral questions are frequently brought into an interview that was initially concerned with an economic or academic problem.

At the present time educators still disagree regarding the scope of guidance or personnel work (the two names are

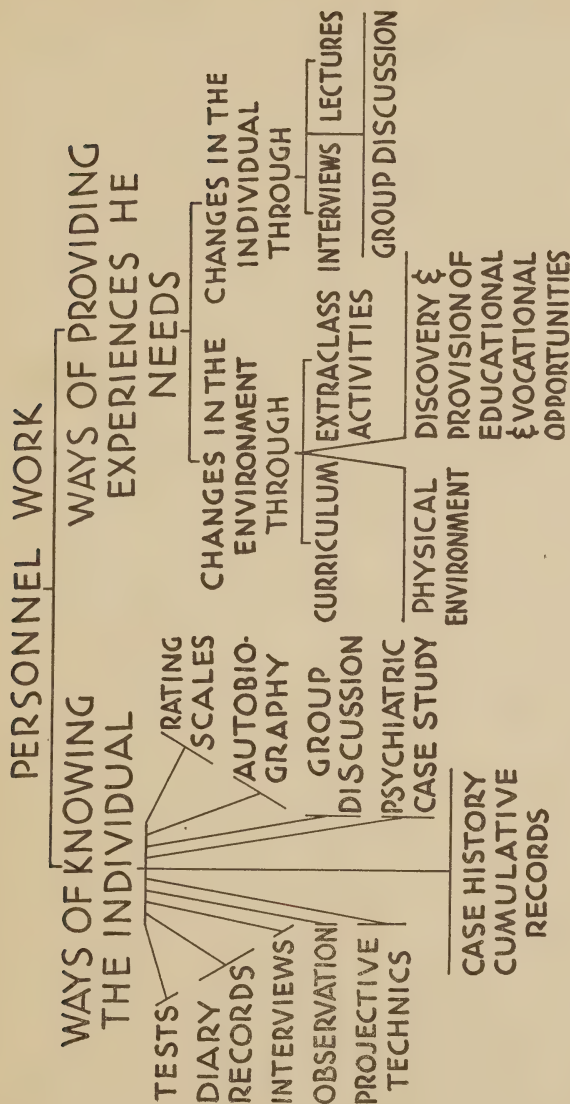


FIG. 1.—SCOPE OF PERSONNEL WORK

used interchangeably). Some make it as broad as education; others limit it to assistance given a person in making a vocational or educational choice. The major aspects of the process may be represented by Figure 1.

↙ Modern Trends in Personnel Work ↘

Although there is still a confusing discrepancy between theory and practice, trends in personnel work can be seen:

1. The trend toward increasing responsibility for guidance on the part of teachers.
2. The trend toward the guidance of the individual as a whole in all his many-sided aspects.
3. The trend toward developmental or preventive guidance, which makes remedial work less necessary.
4. The trend toward self-guidance: faith in the individual's capacity to solve his own problems by means of the resources within himself and the community.
5. The emphasis in vocational guidance on flexibility and adaptability of vocational choice in this rapidly changing economic world.
6. Increased consideration of social responsibility as well as personal success in making life plans.
7. The trend toward viewing personnel work in its full educational, social, and economic setting and recognizing that conditions in the school and society make effective guidance possible—or impossible.

These trends imply certain principles of personnel work. The first is respect for, and acceptance of, the person as he is: his present capacities, interests, experiences, and faults. The second is the principle of growth. The personnel worker focuses his attention on what the student may become. The third principle is self-direction, which recognizes the resources within the individual to help himself. Teachers and administrators are daily faced with the responsibility of making the best use of the human resources represented by their students.

II

PROGRAMS OF STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

Responsibility for the development and guidance of students weighs heavily upon teachers who have become permeated with the personnel point of view and, at the same time, have become keenly conscious of the limitations within themselves and within the school. By studying the local situation they uncover resources as well as recognize limitations. Thus they acquire a realistic basis for building a sound program. A program is only an intelligent means by which the school staff may do more effective work with individuals and groups.

In some situations personnel work begins on the minus side of the interest scale. At the mere suggestion of any innovation, some teachers ruffle their feathers. A few seem to be incapable of dealing wisely with individual students: they are indifferent to students as persons; they tend to subdue rather than to try to understand refractory behavior; they lack psychological insight. These teachers should be given a minimum of responsibility in the guidance program. However, they fortunately constitute a very small percentage of the total number of teachers.

At the other extreme are a few teachers who are intuitively effective personnel workers, who have always taken a constructive and sympathetic interest in students. A still smaller number have had training and experience in counseling and group work.

The wide center of the scale embraces the large majority who are ready to cooperate, to learn, and to grow in their

guidance responsibilities. Unfortunately, many of these guidance-minded teachers are harassed by heavy teaching schedules, crowded classrooms, and the necessity of making extensive clerical reports.

✓ Developing a Program of Personnel Work ✓

In a school or college in which the faculty as a whole does not have the personnel point of view, someone with vision must take the initiative for developing the program. Sometimes this person is the principal, sometimes a teacher or a small nucleus of teachers who may influence the entire school through their personal contacts and their demonstrations of the effectiveness of guidance methods.

Such a person, or persons, will want to make a preliminary survey of the personnel services already being offered to the students. Then the first step is to talk with teachers individually, find out their difficulties, discover and help them to develop their positive ideas. As these other members of the faculty become interested and receptive, they may take on special responsibilities. One may be interested in making a follow-up study of students who have dropped out before graduating; another may assume responsibility for collecting and making available information about scholarships. Reports of these various projects may be made in a series of faculty meetings, as a result of which the students' needs and the school and community's resources for meeting them will become clearer to all.

Before long the faculty will be ready to call in experts to help them decide on the best form of guidance organization for their school. Having made this decision, they will set to work acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to make the program function. Recognizing the danger of popularizing personnel work before it is understood, they will not introduce special counseling services or group work until they are reasonably sure of succeeding. To reach this stage they will need a thoroughgoing program of in-service education: case conferences, demonstrations of counseling pro-

cedures, practice in the observation of students' behavior and in the keeping and use of records, and other methods of developing real proficiency.

Gradually a leader may emerge from the school staff to coordinate the program. Failing this, the group may make efforts to find a specialist who will help every member of the school staff make his maximum contribution to the personnel work as a whole.

✓ Types of Programs for Personnel Work ✓

To meet the needs of students, various types of guidance programs have grown up. They are all based on a common principle: that every student should have a counselor who knows him as a whole and will help him to get the experiences, information, and guidance that he needs. This person may be a subject teacher, a core-curriculum teacher, a home-room teacher, a teacher freed for counseling for one or two periods a day, a still more highly trained counselor, a dean, or a director of guidance employed full time for this work, or there may be a staff of specialists. Whatever form the program takes, the teacher holds a strategic place in it.

The Subject-Teacher Organization. This is the typical form of organization in elementary schools, in the seventeen thousand or more small public high schools with a staff of from three to ten teachers, and in certain modern schools and colleges. It may be represented as shown in Figure 2.

In the elementary school a class of children are assigned to a teacher for one or more years. He is responsible for the guidance of this group. He is their classroom teacher, sensitive to their development, watchful of it, recorder of it. By observing and listening, he becomes aware of individual children's needs and sensitive to classroom opportunities for meeting them. Long after children leave his class, he is interested in them individually.

In high school, also, this close fusion of guidance and instruction is possible. It is reasonable that the teacher who

is in contact with about thirty pupils for a large part of the school day should serve as their counselor. In some high

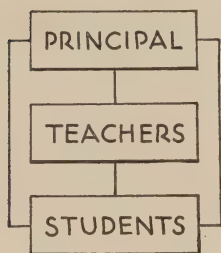


FIG. 2. — SIMPLEST FORM OF ORGANIZATION: CLASSROOM TEACHER THE COUNSELOR FOR HIS GROUP

Lines represent a direct relationship.

schools the length of one period may be increased and each teacher appointed counselor of the group then in his charge. The extended period gives the teacher a better opportunity to know his pupils and to make adjustments to their needs. Part of the period may be used for discussing common problems or for giving information needed by the group as a whole.

Even under a departmental form of organization there is always some teacher guidance. It may be either haphazard or planned. One example will illustrate a form of guidance that is common in schools with no organized guidance program:

John, a boy of foreign parentage, was isolated from American culture by living in a neighborhood where he spoke only his parents' language. Most of his teachers considered him stubborn and made no attempt to use the good feature of his foreign cultural background. It was the music teacher who noticed that the boy had a big, low voice, which the teacher needed on the second bass part in his male quartet. Rehearsals held in the homes of the members of the quartet introduced this boy to other kinds of family life and also brought the teacher frequently into contact with the boy's parents.

Gradually the teacher discovered that John was an intelligent boy and had learned how to reason and argue logically. He was invited to join the debating club. These responsibilities aroused in him a desire to improve his personal appearance and to use the English language more effectively. It was not long before his parents became interested in the school and attended all the concerts and debates. The same teacher helped John to obtain a scholarship to college.

This inclination of individual teachers to help pupils can be capitalized and coordinated. When a student chooses a

certain teacher as his confidant, the principal, after consulting the teacher, may assign the student as his counselee. Thus a teacher who establishes congenial relationships with students will gradually acquire a group of counselees. Other teachers learn which teacher is serving as a student's counselor and exchange information and suggestions with him.

In colleges having no formal personnel program the student's major professor often serves as his counselor, don, or tutor. Like the teacher in elementary school and in high school, he is expected to know his students and help them to know and educate themselves. At Bennington College, the student's weekly schedule includes one and a half hours for counseling. She can use this time for discussion of either academic or personal matters. Some students talk about personal matters to avoid discussing their academic sins of omission; whereas others retreat from a consideration of personal problems by talking exclusively about their subjects.

There seem to be two methods of doing personnel work in schools employing no specialists: (1) by assigning, as already suggested, a limited number of students to certain teachers, who take full responsibility for their guidance; and (2) by delegating specific guidance duties to members of the faculty. In the second plan one teacher is assigned to attendance problems, another to advising students concerning choice of course or college, and others to other personnel functions. The first plan seems preferable, namely to have for every student a teacher-counselor who knows him as a whole and uses special resources as needed.

Core-Curriculum Organization. The so-called core curriculum closely resembles the extended period type of program. In some schools the core curriculum has taken the form of a fusion of social studies and English, or a core of general education needed for all citizens of a free society; in other schools it is a center of interest to which many fields contribute; in still other schools the basic content of the course consists of practical problems, such as orientation to the school, "social living," and educational and vocational adjustment.

Under the core-curriculum form of organization, one of the core teachers is recognized as the person responsible for knowing each student in the class and helping each to get the experiences he needs. The person in charge of a core group of thirty or forty pupils is appropriately called "teacher-counselor." He might well be called teacher-counselor-curriculum-reviser because he is constantly getting suggestions for changes in the curriculum as he studies individual pupils.

In a sense, the cooperative plan is a form of core curriculum, the core or center being the student's work experience. The cooperative program in Detroit is an example of this form of organization. Students attend school four hours a day and work four hours a day in offices or retail stores. Each vocational group of students has its coordinator. Once a semester the employer makes a report on the student's personality, personal appearance and hygiene, punctuality and attendance, ability to get along with others, and success on the job. A great deal of expert guidance is given by the personnel directors of the companies in which these cooperative students work. Counseling by personnel workers in the company and by the coordinator in the school is supplemented by the students' group discussions of their work experience.

In the cooperative plan guidance takes a practical turn. Students see the vocational value of personal development. They want to become better groomed and more suitably dressed. Frequently a student who is failing in school because of a language handicap, poor preparation, or low abstract verbal ability derives satisfaction and security from his job. The coordinator takes advantage of these vocational incentives to personal development in his counseling of this group.

On every educational level, the success of these plans in which instruction and guidance are fused depends on whether the teacher is:

1. Well qualified by personality for his guidance responsibility.
2. Aware of the opportunities for guidance in the classroom and able to use his subject as an important means of student development.

3. Willing to learn and willing to grow in his ability to observe, interview, interpret behavior, keep cumulative records, conduct informal discussions, give students instruction in the technics of committee work, and develop student leadership.
4. Given opportunities for, and assistance in, learning to do better the personnel work he is now doing.

*Homeroom Organization.*¹ The homeroom organization differs from the subject-teacher organizations already de-

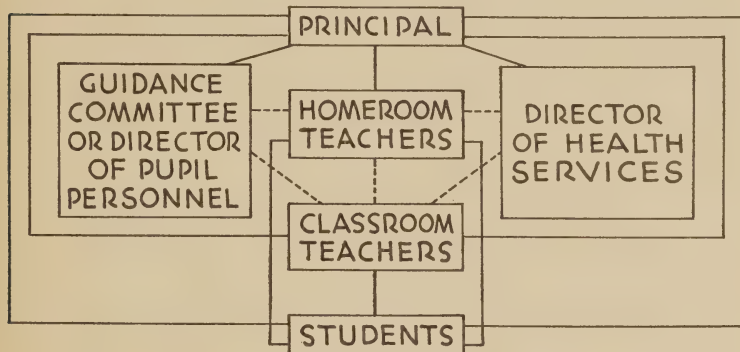


FIG. 3.—A HOMEROOM FORM OF ORGANIZATION

Solid lines represent a direct relationship; dotted lines a consulting or advisory relationship.

scribed in being less closely connected with academic instruction. Homerooms were created to restore to the curriculum the opportunities for guidance, development of leadership, and self-expression that had gradually been lost. Theoretically it provides time for both counseling and group work. This form of organization is shown in Figure 3.

To be sure, the homeroom teacher is primarily a subject teacher, and only secondarily a homeroom teacher. Usually he has had no preparation for his homeroom responsibilities. Moreover, since most homeroom organizations use 75 per cent or more of the teaching staff, there is not much chance for selecting only the teachers qualified for this work.

¹ See Chapter V for more detail about homeroom procedures.

Despite these limitations, the homeroom form of organization has two advantages: relatively small counseling units, and time for the consideration of matters of common concern to the group. Under favorable conditions, it is possible for the homeroom teacher to occupy a key position in the guidance program. But merely to introduce homeroom periods without providing other conditions that are necessary if the homeroom teachers are to do their job well is worse than futile; it leads quickly to dissatisfaction on the part of teachers, pupils, and parents.

In order to develop the homeroom form of guidance organization successfully, the following conditions are essential:

1. The teachers who agree to serve as homeroom teachers must be convinced of the values of the homeroom organization.

2. They must see clearly their responsibilities as homeroom teacher: an understanding of each pupil as a whole and of his needs for guidance, provision of the kind of experiences he needs, sound counseling on his educational and vocational plans and his less complex personal and school problems, referral to a skilled counselor or use of outside-of-school resources in cases too difficult for the homeroom teacher to handle.

3. They must be helped to improve the quality of their guidance by in-service education—demonstrations, discussion, reading—in the technics of interviewing, group discussion, committee work, keeping and interpreting records.

4. They must be given simple, up-to-date, accurate information about educational and vocational requirements and opportunities.

5. They must have the cumulative records for the pupils in their rooms, or easily available in a central guidance office.

6. They must have a full period a week as well as the daily eight to ten minutes. One of these periods each month can be used for the testing; other periods for imparting information of interest and value to all the pupils in the homeroom groups, and for discussing common school problems. The scheduled homeroom time should not be longer than teachers and pupils can use effectively. It is better to begin with a

short period and extend it when more time is demanded by pupils and teachers.

The Part-Time Counselor Organization. If not enough teachers are interested and qualified to serve as teacher-counselors of students in their subject classes, extended period groups, or core-curriculum units, or as homeroom teachers, the part-time counselor form of organization can be devel-

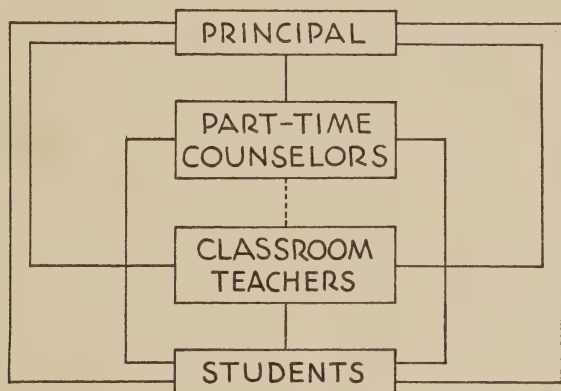


FIG. 4.—PART-TIME COUNSELOR FORM OF ORGANIZATION

Solid lines represent a direct relationship; dotted lines a consulting or advisory relationship.

oped. In every school there is a nucleus of teachers whom students like and respect and who have other potentialities for counseling. These teachers may be freed from part of their teaching responsibility for conferences with students and parents, for record-keeping, and for meetings with their counselees in small or larger groups. If the counselors selected are well qualified, tactful, and popular with teachers as well as with students, other teachers will welcome their assistance in the guidance of students.

The part-time counselor organization is represented in Figure 4, above.

We find many forms of this organization in high schools and institutions of higher learning. Most common and most

poorly developed are the grade-adviser and faculty-adviser systems. In its best form² the part-time counselor plan includes the following features:

1. The part-time counselors are carefully chosen from among the teachers who have demonstrated their constructive relationship with students.

2. These counselors are freed for at least two periods a day.

3. They are provided with files for students' cumulative records, with a private room for interviewing, with results of standardized tests and health examinations.

4. To each of these counselors is assigned a group of students, not more than one hundred in number.

5. The counselor visits the lower schools from which his counselees come, makes his initial contact with them there, and obtains relevant information about them from the records and from the teachers who know them best.

6. The counselor's contact with these students continues throughout the high school or college years unless, for personal or vocational reasons, it seems desirable to transfer them to another counselor.

7. If possible, the part-time counselor's schedule is planned so that he has his counselees in at least one of his subject classes.

8. There is a close reciprocal relationship between the part-time counselor and the students' other teachers; they exchange information and suggestions that may be used for the students' good.

9. The part-time counselor is acquainted with resources in the school and the community that he can call on for cases too complex or time-consuming for him to handle. Among these resources are deans of girls and deans of boys, vocational counselors, psychologists, and visiting teachers in the school or school system; guidance specialists serving the county or state; and child-guidance and health centers, welfare agencies, and youth-serving agencies in the community.

10. During his service as counselor the teacher has the

²For a description of the well-developed part-time counselor program at University High School, Oakland, California, see Ruth Strang, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance*, pp. 132-139. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

benefit of weekly or bimonthly meetings with more expert personnel workers during which immediate problems of counseling are discussed and his knowledge of human behavior and counseling procedures is broadened and deepened.

11. After serving as counselor for one or more groups of students, the part-time counselor goes back to a full-time teaching schedule, if this step is desirable, with a deepened understanding of the opportunities for guidance in his regular classes, and an increased appreciation of the importance of the teacher's cooperation with special guidance workers.

Under the conditions outlined, the part-time counselor becomes a person of importance in the personnel program. He looks forward, however, to the time when guidance and instruction are fused and he may perform many of these functions as an intrinsic part of his teaching program.

The greatest danger in the part-time counselor program is that other teachers will feel that the appointment of part-time counselors relieves subject teachers of responsibility for guidance. This, of course, is not so; every teacher makes an essential contribution to the personnel program. In his special role as teacher-counselor, part-time counselor, or home-room teacher, he merely intensifies and broadens his guidance responsibilities.

Guidance Centered in a Specialist. Instead of adopting the teacher-centered personnel program with specialists serving as resources, consultants, and instructors in counseling and group-work methods, some educational institutions have set up a specialist-centered program controlled by a central student personnel department. This type of organization may be represented by Figures 5 and 6. Either of these forms of organization may be combined with the home-room or teacher-counselor plans. They should always function through the teachers rather than apart from them.

In instances in which the attempt has been made to isolate the personnel department from instruction and administration, the program has failed. So far as we know, no high school or college now attempts to do this. Contemporary leaders in personnel work not only emphasize coordination;

they also recognize that personnel work is an intrinsic part of the total educational program and cannot be regarded or treated as a separate department. For example, at the University of Minnesota, which has developed one of the most highly specialized programs, the aim was to coordinate the

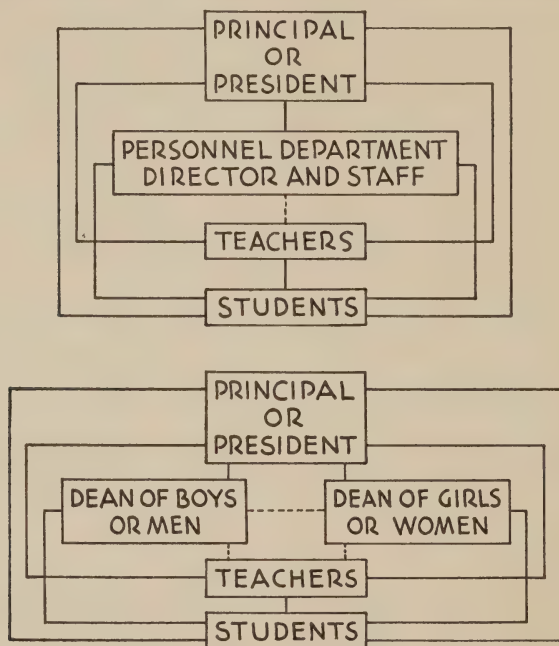


FIG. 5.—FORMS OF ORGANIZATION IN WHICH GUIDANCE IS CENTRALIZED IN SPECIALISTS IN PERSONNEL WORK

Solid lines represent a direct relationship; dotted lines a consulting or advisory relationship.

technical services of the dean of women, dean of student affairs, directors of dormitories, speech clinic, students' health service, and ten or more other departments and thus to supplement the personnel work done by members of the faculty in their daily relationships with students.

In order to prevent teachers from feeling that the employment of a special personnel worker relieves them of responsibility for guidance, the principal of the high school or presi-

dent of the college should consult the teachers before engaging a specialist. Ideally, the request for assistance in counseling should come from the teachers themselves, who should suggest the qualifications they think most important for such a person. If the specialist who is employed

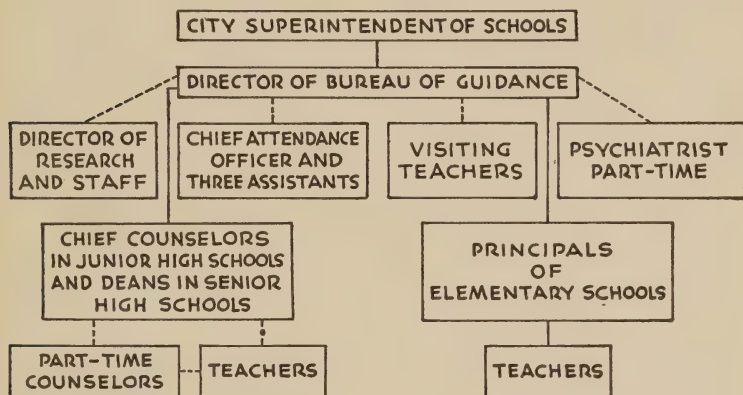


FIG. 6.—A FORM OF ORGANIZATION FOR A SCHOOL SYSTEM

Solid lines represent a direct relationship; dotted lines a consulting or advisory relationship.

is wise, he will go slowly. He will learn about the good personnel work now being done and express appreciation of it. He will begin working on the problem about which the teachers are most concerned and will demonstrate his competence in dealing with it. He will listen and learn, be patient, objective, understanding. He will not introduce tests that the teachers have to correct or make innovations before the teachers have come to see their purpose and usefulness.

A City Guidance Program. A city organization for guidance is represented by Figure 6. A city guidance program may take any form of organization that provides a coordinated consultation service to the schools. The most frequent complaint is that there are not enough specialists to meet the demands of the schools.

✓ The Teacher and the Specialist Cooperating ✓

Whatever type of organization is developed, a well-trained specialist in personnel work should be available. Ideally, in personnel programs in which teachers hold the key position, experts in personnel work stand ready off stage to be consulted. They work closely with the teachers and help the entire staff to give better guidance. The relative responsibilities have been aptly described by Edith M. Everett.

The teacher's part in a guidance program is inevitable. In the teacher lies all the hope of education. However fine the theory, however experimental the spirit, it is the teacher who puts them to the final test of practice. Principals and supervisors stand ready to help him, but teaching is what he as a person makes it. The school counselor is the support of the teacher at the point where individual children show need for special understanding and help. Neither can do the other's job. Together they can do much to make the school experience a positive constructive one for all children; one in which each child has a chance to grow to the limit of his ability.³

The program of pupil personnel and counseling in the Philadelphia schools illustrates the type of program in which teachers are the key persons, ably assisted by counseling teachers in the elementary schools and counselors in the high schools. In 1942 the Division of Compulsory Education became the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling.⁴ By this change an extensive counseling program was added to the existing services.

The Division coordinates the work of the attendance officers, home and school visitors, employment certificating officials, and counselors and gives a common direction and continuity to these closely related services.⁵

³ School District of Philadelphia, Philadelphia Public Schools, *Counseling Bulletin*, No. 1, p. 1, January, 1945.

⁴ Robert C. Taber, Director, "The Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling" (unpaged, no date).

⁵ Emilie Rannells, Assistant Director, "Counseling Service in the Philadelphia Schools," *School and College Placement*, 4:41-44, December, 1943.

Eighty-seven teachers, selected on the basis of special aptitude and experience, were designated as counseling teachers in elementary schools (June, 1944). Almost one hundred counselors who qualified by special examination or who were transferred from related services were appointed to the junior high, high, and vocational schools. To be eligible for this examination, applicants were required to hold a Pennsylvania State Teacher's Certificate and to secure a state certificate for "Guidance Counselor" before the beginning of the new school year. "The examinations are both written and oral, the latter placing emphasis upon an evaluation of the training, experience, and personality of the candidate."

In the elementary school, the procedure for the selection and placement of the counseling teachers was quite different. They were chosen from among the successful classroom teachers in their respective schools on the recommendation of the principal and with the approval of the superintendent. They were teachers who had given particular evidence of their interest in child development and of their ability to work constructively with children. During the first year they spent half the day working in their schools and the other half participating in a practical training program which included such units as "The Counseling Process," "School and Community Resources," and "The Psychological Growth Problems of Children." Three consultants in the central office gave them individual help, one specializing on community problems and resources.

Advisory committees composed of principals of elementary and secondary schools worked with the Division in helping to make counseling an integral part of each school and to integrate counseling and teaching. The Division was concerned that the work of the "counseling teachers" should lead to more effective counseling by all teachers. To this end, teachers and counselors conferred frequently. Such a specialized counseling service not only offers teachers

an opportunity to know, in a new and more meaningful way, the problems pupils face but deepens understanding of their struggles and their needs, which are in essence the conflicts we all struggle with and the needs we all experience. This deepened

awareness means better teaching and better teacher-counseling for the pupils.⁶

Counseling was centered upon the pupil rather than upon the problem, and a wide range of problems were met. "The counselor was used by homeroom teachers, class advisers, teachers, and other school personnel to supplement their own guidance work with pupils." Thus teachers gained a deeper appreciation of their own potential helpfulness.

We, in the public school system of Philadelphia, feel particular satisfaction in the fact that our counseling facilities begin with the child's entrance into school. Not only can many problems of young children be rather quickly helped, but there is great value in meeting problems at the time they occur. The early experience of facing and working through difficulties with counseling help should increase the individual's acceptance of his limitations and potentialities which, in turn, should mean something later on when the choice of a vocation lies before him.⁷

The guidance program recommended in the Educational Policies Commission report, *Education for All American Youth*,⁸ is a combination of the core "curriculum and the special" counselor plan. In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of the rural school, guidance is chiefly the responsibility of the classroom teacher. Beginning with the ninth grade the teacher's work is to be supplemented by four specially trained counselors who have formerly been teachers and still teach at least one course. In the city school, it is likewise recommended that the guidance work done by the teacher of the "common learnings," or core course, be reinforced by three men and three women who have obtained training in personnel procedures and give all their time to guidance. From the ninth grade on, each of these advisers is responsible for coordinating the personnel work for two hundred or more boys or girls. Each has certain additional

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 42.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, pp. 40-50; 311-327. National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., 1944.

responsibilities: supplying teachers with the latest information about employment opportunities, administering student aid, working with the junior placement service and serving as placement officers for the school, and conducting the in-service education program for teachers.

It is partly because teachers have been prepared only to teach, and not to guide, that the help of specially trained guidance workers is needed. If teachers are to serve as key persons in student personnel programs, they must have help. The Philadelphia program is exceptional both in its recognition that the teacher should play a key part and in its provision for in-service growth.

As a member of the school staff of the city, county, or state department of education, the specialist works with teachers on their problems of appraising student ability, doing remedial work in tool subjects, creating an atmosphere conducive to good mental hygiene, giving instruction and guidance to prevent unnecessary failure and maladjustment, counseling students with complex personality problems, and discovering and using community resources. Criticism of the specialist-centered program implies no criticism of the specialist. He has an important function, but it is as leader of an orchestra rather than as soloist.

✓ Developing Your Own Personnel Program ✓

There is no one best guidance program for all situations. The best plan for each situation grows out of student needs, the personality and preparation of the staff, the financial resources of the school, and the characteristics of the community.

The administrator and staff should consider several possible types of program and gradually and cooperatively evolve the plan that is most appropriate. Consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of each plan involves such important factors as the readiness of pupils, parents, and teachers to accept it, the personal qualifications of teachers to carry it

out effectively, the teachers' attitude toward change and their willingness to learn new guidance technics, and the expert leadership available in helping teachers to grow in their guidance responsibilities.

Before finally deciding on the best structure for a guidance program, it would be desirable for any school to experiment with what seems to be the most promising form of organization. For example, if the staff as a whole is favorably inclined toward devoting a period a week to guidance activities, they should be encouraged to find out what the values of this form of organization really are. Then they will understand and be enthusiastic about the program that they select.

It should be borne in mind, too, that the human relations are far more important than the form of organization; the machinery is far less important than the quality of the counseling and group work. Finally, the plan should be flexible, free to change as the human elements in the situation change.

✓ "Musts" for Success in a Personnel Program ✓

At this point may be summarized the essentials of any personnel program:

1. There must be general leadership that has these three qualities: a kindly, constructive attitude toward people, a clear idea of the purpose of student personnel work, and enough understanding of personnel services to help teachers improve the quality of their work with individuals and with groups. In a small school this leadership is usually furnished by the principal. In a large school the principal may delegate his responsibility for detailed leadership in the program to a vice-principal or administrative assistant in charge of guidance, to a dean of girls, dean of boys, counselor, or director of guidance. Thus the administrator provides expert leadership for the program. In a college the president would have similar responsibility.

2. There must be good human relationships. The administrator must be considerate of his teachers, give them

assignments for which they are best fitted, and help them to grow as persons and as teachers. Relationships can be improved—relationships between administrator and teachers, relationships among teachers, and relationships between teachers and students.

3. There must be understanding, friendly teachers who are themselves happy, who see the significance and creative opportunities of their work and derive satisfaction from it.

4. Every student must have someone who knows him as a whole and likes him as a person to serve him as a skillful counselor, keeping his cumulative records and coordinating all the available services of the school and community to meet his needs. Teachers can use to better advantage the contacts that they now have with students, within the time available, if they allow the students more responsibility for self-guidance and interpret their experiences and attitudes more skillfully.

5. The school and community together should supply the experiences each student needs for his best growth.

6. The program must grow gradually and naturally with the understanding, enthusiasm, and cooperation of all concerned and should be an integral part of the total educational program.

7. There must be continuity of personnel work across all educational levels through cumulative records, through personal contacts between teachers of each school, through joint committees, and through exchange of information about curriculum and guidance procedures. Through visits to lower schools counselors can explain by means of films, pamphlets, talks, and individual conferences the opportunities and responsibilities offered in the upper schools or in other educational agencies.

8. There should be contacts with parents. Visits to the school, home visits, study groups, parent-teacher associations, conferences on vocations, and talks to social and civic clubs increase parents' understanding of the aims and procedures of student personnel work.

9. There should be a community council composed of representatives from the school, school board, service clubs,

women's organizations, churches, newspapers, industry, business, labor, welfare organizations, and the public at large, the purpose of which is to give support to and coordinate the personnel work in the community and to create conditions conducive to the best development of all the persons in that community.

10. There should be some method of helping teachers, whatever role they play in the personnel program, to grow in vision, knowledge, and skill. Some of the means of in-service education need only be mentioned here: helpful, constructive supervision, opportunity to observe and work with persons more expert than they in counseling and group work, study groups and faculty meetings, institutes and in-service courses, summer and extension courses offered by colleges and universities, and easily available, up-to-date books. Teachers, like students, have unrealized potentialities. They should not stop growing.

In brief, then, these are the conditions that should be met in developing a successful program of personnel work: administrative vision and approval, expert and tactful leadership, recognition of individual differences among teachers, appreciation of the needs and assets in the local situation, and a willingness to proceed slowly and experimentally.

✧ Conditions Influencing Student Personnel Work ✧

Because personnel work permeates the whole educational plant and program, its quality is bound to be affected by physical conditions, by administrative organization, by the morale and atmosphere of the school, by the curriculum, and by the policies of promotion, marking, attendance, and discipline. Conditions in the school and in society often defeat guidance-minded teachers. It is therefore essential that administrators and teachers recognize and correct unfavorable conditions.

Physical Conditions. Improvements in the physical plant usually are needed. Many teachers have no place in which

to interview students and parents in private. If they attempt to hold interviews in the classroom, other students overhear what is said. The only alternative is to go out into the hall and carry on a hurried conversation. Privacy and convenience demand that there be small interviewing rooms in a central office where cumulative developmental records can be kept. In one modern school, a small room with a window facing the class was built into each classroom to assure privacy for conferences.

Rooms for large and for small group activities are requisite to an effective group-activities program. A school should have small rooms for committee meetings; dining rooms for small luncheon parties; large social rooms for parties, dances, and discussions; game rooms; an attractive auditorium; and radio-listening and browsing rooms for informal recreation of the kind that fills much of the leisure time of adult life. These rooms should be extensively used by students, out-of-school youth, and adults.

Other physical features that cause a general feeling of strain and dissatisfaction are congested locker space, inadequate facilities for showers, and noisy cafeterias and corridors that could be made more livable by sound-absorbing walls and ceilings.

Perhaps poor physical conditions, however, are the least detrimental of the factors mentioned. In some situations they have actually contributed to school and community spirit. Parents, pupils, and teachers have worked shoulder to shoulder painting walls, building playgrounds, making equipment. In the process they have come to understand and respect one another.

Organization and Administrative Attitudes. It is obvious that the organization and administration of the school may facilitate or defeat effective personnel work. Many classes are too large. Although a small class does not insure individualization, a large class makes attention to the individual student more difficult.

The question of the desirability of segregating gifted and dull-normal children in separate classes confronts the ad-

ministrator who wants to create the best conditions for the development of all students. In groups of similar ability, the gifted are not so likely to be dragged down toward mediocrity, nor are the mentally retarded so likely to become discouraged by the effort of keeping up with much more able students. Both groups profit by more appropriate methods and equipment than can be used in regular classes. On the other hand, unless this plan is skillfully introduced to parents, teachers, and students, it may result in feelings of inferiority on the part of the retarded and of superiority on the part of the gifted. A more serious feature of this plan is its failure to afford students the opportunity to work and play with all sorts of persons. The gifted especially are likely to find it a professional handicap to have had no experience in getting along with persons in varied walks of life.

These disadvantages can be avoided by a combination of heterogenous and special grouping. For part of the day the gifted and the retarded students work and play together in groups representing a wide range of ability and achievement. For the rest of the day they go to special classes or "laboratories." The gifted may work on "research" problems in the library, join a workshop in advanced writing, take other advanced courses for which they are ready, learn special skills such as typing or handwork, engage in community projects. Similarly, the retarded pupils may go to shops, special reading or arithmetic classes, or engage in part-time work outside school. Thus the school creates conditions in which all students can develop their distinctive abilities and interests and yet have the necessary common social experiences.

The "double-shift" school, in which part of the pupils come early in the morning and go home at noon in order to make the classrooms available to the remainder of the pupils, offers little opportunity for personal contacts between teacher and pupils outside the classroom. After each session the teacher is busy putting away supplies to make room for the next instructor. Congestion breeds trouble. In many schools on "double shift" it is difficult for pupils to find places for group activity meetings. An extra club meeting

cannot be called without upsetting some other activity. The closely scheduled double day tends to result in a general feeling of tension and hurry, little time for counseling, and limited participation in student activities.

Even in one-session schools, many teachers have a feeling of pressure. The pace of school life is too swift. There is too much work to be "covered." The clang of a bell cuts the school day into inflexible short periods that often end just when interest is keenest. No wonder teachers cry, "We don't have time," when they are asked to take any additional guidance responsibility.

Some principals, supervisors, and parents encourage methods of instruction that are not conducive to guidance. They have the idea that a teacher is loafing unless she is active in the classroom, explaining, admonishing, giving directions, imparting information incessantly. But by doing so much of the thinking for their students, teachers deprive them of valuable learning experience. As one student said to his teacher, "When you teach all the time, we have no time to work." The administrator should assure teachers that the time they spend in helping students learn how to learn and take more responsibility for their own education and guidance is professional time exceedingly well spent.

The burden of clerical work that contributes nothing to the understanding of students causes a feeling of frustration on the part of teachers. This is an administrative problem that needs attention in many schools.

State laws may interfere with good guidance if they hold boys and girls in school who want and need work experience. These youngsters feel chained to a meaningless curriculum. During the war, work experience programs gave them an outlet for their desire to be independent and an opportunity to test themselves in the world of work. In many cases the curriculum has been modified to meet the needs of students whom the law holds in school against their will.

The Curriculum. A suitable curriculum for *all* American youth is basic to any effective guidance program. The detailed description given by the Educational Policies Com-

mission⁹ suggests ways of meeting every need by providing a core of common knowledge for living and a wide variety of learning experiences in the school and community. However, pending the extensive realization of this unified forward-looking program, many separate features have been and will be introduced here and there.

Work-study programs that flourished during the war¹⁰ proved their value. They demonstrated the possibility of more flexible programing for all students. Their emphasis on general knowledge to meet the requirements of living has brought about improvements in students' present and future adjustment.

Many examples could be given of educational programs in which every student can succeed without too great a strain. In the Girls Trade School in Newark, girls of limited ability are happy in doing work which is suited to them and which eventually leads to self-support.

To the Hadley Technical High School in St. Louis are admitted eighth grade public and parochial school graduates who are recommended by their principals, pupils who transfer from other high schools, pupils who attend the school on the high school cooperative program, and high school graduates. The enrollment is between two and three thousand pupils. The school offers four-year courses in eighteen industrial and three commercial fields—stenographic, book-keeping-accounting machines, and general clerical. Its counseling program is represented in Figure 7.

The policy of this school is to offer exploratory or tryout courses for all pupils in the ninth grade. These courses have two guidance values: (1) they enable the pupils to see for themselves what they can do and what they like to do, and (2) they give the counselors, heads of departments, and teachers opportunities to observe the pupils as they work in different vocational fields. Toward the end of the first year

⁹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, pp. 40-50; 311-327. National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., 1944.

¹⁰ Marion Brown, "The Work-Experience Program in the Oakland Public Schools," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 8:4-26, October, 1944.

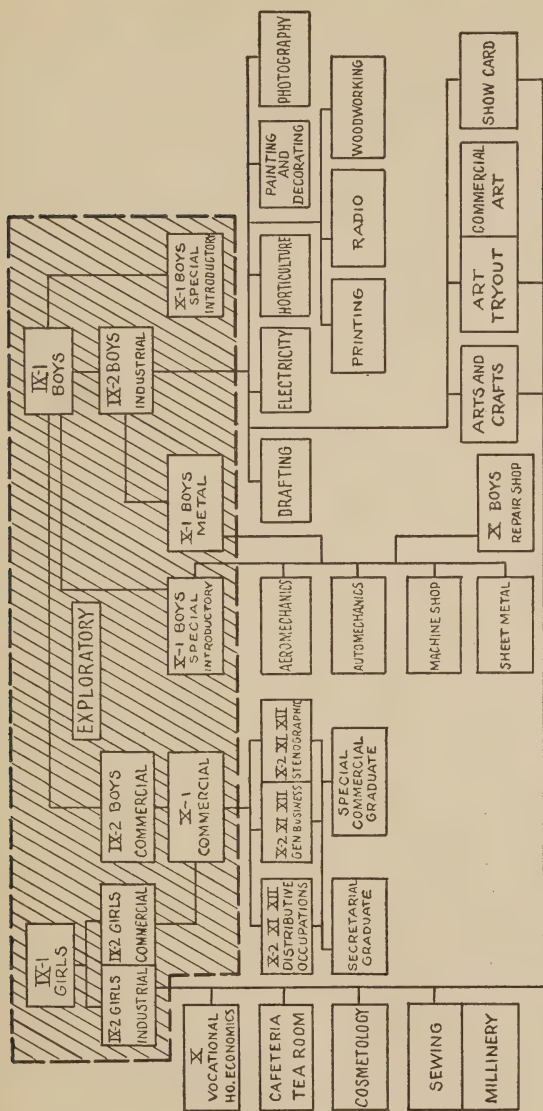


FIG. 7.—PUPILS' COUNSELING CHART, THE HADLEY TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS

The purpose of this chart is to show how pupils progress from one counseling group to the next. Each rectangle represents a counselor or program chairman who is assisted in the counseling of pupils by a committee of teachers. The counselors within the shaded area (Exploratory Area) are under the general direction of the IX-1 boys' counselor. The counselors outside the shaded area are the program chairmen of the vocational divisions.

the counselors are able, with the assistance of data on the individual permanent record cards, to aid pupils in choosing their vocations. After the first year, the counselor hands to the head of each department a copy of the permanent record card of each pupil recommended for that department. From then on the heads of the departments and their assistants become the counselors of their own groups for the ensuing years of high school.

In cooperation with the other metropolitan high schools, the Hadley Technical High School offers specialized training to the students in the upper grades of these metropolitan high schools. This is known as the high school cooperative program. Students taking advantage of this opportunity attend their "home" school for one-half the day and the technical high school for the other half-day. Through this program, the student is given the opportunity to supplement the general foundation secured in the "home" high school and is equipped with several skills to offer an employment manager when he applies for work. At the same time, the student is able to take part in the social and other school activities of his graduating class, which are essential to his well-rounded development. These high school co-ops, as they are called, are enrolled in almost all departments of the technical high school. Enrollment is on the recommendation of the principal and the counselor of the "home" school. Coordination and liaison activities in connection with this program require a continuous flow of information between the schools regarding pupils, curriculum, and administrative details. This cooperative program serves as a source of occupational information to students and teachers of the various high schools.

In September of 1943 the work-school program for the technical high school seniors was inaugurated. Students enrolled in this program in the last half year of their senior year are permitted to work on the half-day basis in the field of their major specialization. School credit is granted for this work experience. The counselor-coordinator checks with the employer on the progress and performance of the student. In addition, these students meet with the counselor each day

for one period, during which an attempt is made to integrate the school program with the job.

The vocational high schools and trade schools provide avenues of education for a large number of boys and girls for whom the academic type of high school is unsuited. However, there is still a dearth of educational opportunities for overage non-academic pupils who have not been able to graduate from elementary school or who have been in classes for the mentally handicapped. To meet this need, the Metropolitan Vocational High School of New York City, in addition to taking care of its regular pupils, caters to a special group above the age of fifteen who have been unable to complete the work of the elementary grades. These pupils, carefully selected on the basis of their interest in the vocations taught at the school and their ability to profit from the training offered, are admitted to the vocational high school even though they do not possess an elementary school diploma.

To provide suitable educational experiences for all students is more difficult in small schools and colleges than in large institutions. One small high school made a place for several new courses by combining some of the traditional subjects. For example, modern European history and medieval history were combined into one course called "European history," and teachers' time was thus freed for a practical course in agriculture. This latter course contributed to the intellectual as well as the vocational needs of the rural boys who were uninterested in, and discouraged by, the college preparatory courses. A more common means of enriching the curriculum is to offer subjects in alternate years. Under this plan students enrolled in two successive years take their work together. For instance, a course in civics given in one year may be replaced the following year by a course in European history, thus permitting a student to elect both courses during his school career. It is probable that the extensive development of correspondence courses during the war will continue to enrich the curricula of small schools.

One agricultural community found an unusual solution to the problem of caring for non-academic students. It was

noted that the attendance of boys ranging in age from eleven to eighteen was very poor, obviously because the high school had nothing to interest these boys. The parents were indifferent, and the compulsory education law was not enforced.

The principal, teachers, and parent-teacher association met to discuss the problem. They decided to purchase an unused dance hall about a quarter of a mile away and to move it to the high school campus. They consulted the proper authorities and carried out their plan. The boys helped to remodel the building; it was then equipped for the study of agriculture, auto mechanics, brick masonry, and carpentry. These additions to the curriculum have practically eliminated absenteeism, because the boys are interested in their work and take an active part in school and community activities.

The "experience room" is an extreme example of "fitting the school to the child." One "experience room" was created in response to the needs of boys and girls of twelve to seventeen years of age and of mental ability ranging from very low to average. This group had been left behind when the majority of the pupils had transferred to the new junior high school built to provide education for the children in a rapidly growing small town.

The room was large, bare, and unattractive; panes of glass were missing from some of the windows, and the shades were crooked and dirty. The group itself decided to change it into an attractive "experience room" that would be able to afford a type of activity to suit every individual's need and interest. The youngsters "took hold"; the shop, art, and home arts departments helped them. Parents and neighbors became interested and helped in every way they could: by lending their cars to take the pupils on trips; by painting and doing carpentry work; by coming to the regular Friday afternoon "silver teas" or evening entertainments, where they often presented lectures on their travels or talks on their hobbies. In fact, parents became an integral part of the program. Ten new silent typewriters were loaned, and eventually bought and paid for from funds raised by book fairs and other educational enterprises. If one were to look into this room at any time of the day he could see busy,

happy, well-adjusted pupils working with keen interest toward worthy and appropriate goals.

A suitable curriculum is the simplest and best preventive of behavior problems. Meier's experiments with rats that became neurotic when they were subjected to too great difficulty suggest parallels in the classroom. Baffled by a situation they could not solve, the rats became "stubborn," "didn't try," "sulked," avoided social contacts, had "temper tantrums." Of course, rats are not children, but they exhibited behavior similar to that of pupils who have been subjected to too great difficulty and consequently have not learned to read the books of the grade, have become confused in arithmetic, or are hopelessly retarded in history. These are the problem cases referred to specialists, who should have been spending more of their time in helping teachers to instruct children better and to give remedial help when it was necessary.

Dr. Miriam Van Waters, out of her long experience with juvenile delinquency, described, in an unpublished lecture, a common path to delinquency: It begins with inappropriate curriculum and methods of instruction; these result in lack of success; this leads to dissatisfaction with school; then follows truancy; then membership in an undesirable gang; then stealing or other delinquency; and finally a court sentence, which alienates the boy or girl from his normal group and increases his problems of social adjustment.

It should be noted here that teachers derive certain values from participation in curriculum-building. Educators have been concerned about pupils' "basic needs," but they have failed to recognize that teachers likewise have basic needs. They need affection, recognition, adventure, security, and a sense of personal growth and social usefulness. By working together on such an important problem as that of providing experiences through which children learn, teachers satisfy some of their personal needs. A teacher gains satisfaction from making a good environment for growing children, just as the gardener does from cultivating plants. By participating in curriculum-building teachers clarify their ideas of what they are doing and why and how they are doing it.

Mental Hygiene Atmosphere. Other conditions in the school, besides an unsuitable curriculum, may result in an unbearable strain on the students. Accomplishment as an end in itself is often overemphasized. Teacher attention is focused too intently on end results: subject-matter marks, promotion, a finished product, a flawless assembly program. To be sure, a good product is to be desired, but not when it is attained by neglecting the *process* by which students' personality is developed. Teachers should constantly remember that the assignment, the project, the unit of work, the club activity, are means to the end, not ends in themselves.

Personnel work flourishes in a mentally hygienic atmosphere. Of all the influences that contribute to morale and school spirit the most potent are the personality of the staff and the relationships among administrators, teachers, students, and parents as they work together toward a common goal. We all know a class reflects the personality of the teacher and a school reflects the personality of the principal.

It is not so clearly recognized that when a group accepts an individual and expects the best of him, his conduct and achievement improve. For example, when a member of the Cheyenne Indian tribe had committed a crime and paid the penalty, he was welcomed back into the tribe with the expectancy, on the part of all the members, that he would not be guilty again. This faith in him was almost always justified. Our more savagely competitive groups should follow this example.

Another condition that creates an atmosphere conducive to good student development is a pervasive sense of purpose or worth. A high school student expressed this idea thus:

The teacher should make the pupils feel that they are as important to the growth of our nation as is the greatest statesman. Make the pupils feel that they are important, even though they are in school. The reason why most girls and boys leave our schools these days is that they have the misguided idea that school comes second instead of being as important as any job.

Policies of Promotion and Marking. Policies of promotion and marking are outward manifestations of the attitudes

already mentioned. If we think of promotion as a device for indicating a student's progress and placing him in the group in which he will learn best, then it can be handled in the guidance way. Promotion will be individualized. Everyone will not be promoted automatically on the basis of age nor will large numbers be "left back" because they failed to reach the average of achievement for the grade. Instead, the best group in which to place an individual student for the next semester or the next year will be determined by a number of factors: his physical and social maturity, his mental ability, his previous achievement, his attitude toward the whole school situation, his relationships with students and teachers, and the teachers' ability to meet his individual needs.

Similarly, if marks are used for appraisal rather than for merely passing judgment, they, too, have guidance value. Because marks are taken seriously by parents and students, they should surely cover all important aspects of growth. For this reason, the modern report card includes estimates of personality trends, such as responsibility, cooperativeness, purpose, influence, social sensitivity, emotional maturity, and persistence, as well as achievement in different subjects.

Marks should indicate progress and suggest to a student ways in which he can improve. An analysis of achievement such as the form shown on page 64 was worked out for each subject by the staff of Horace Mann School of Teachers College. Although a teacher could not make such a detailed analysis for every student, except in very small classes, he might teach his students to make their own analyses. Perhaps the most important thing about marks is that they serve as immediate objectives to students and teachers. There is no reason why students should not share in the process of appraising their progress toward these objectives.

A teacher in a school system that still uses the old-fashioned report card on which percentages or letter grades are given for each subject can give this record more guidance value by adding notes or comments. He can point out, for example, that the mark in history, although low in relation to the average of the class, is a good mark for this student. If a student of limited ability is putting forth his best effort, the

NAME..... Year.....

Name of Teacher..... Date.....

SOCIAL STUDIES

	Superior	Acceptable	Limited
I. Understanding of Content			
A. Perception of Relationships.....			
B. Interpretation of Data.....			
C. Retention of Data.....			
D. Ability to Apply Principles to New Problems and Situations.....			
II. Skill in the Use of Materials			
A. Reading for Comprehension.....			
B. Use of Library Facilities.....			
C. Organization of Material in Written Form			
D. Presentation of Material in Oral Form			
III. Habits of Work: Growth in Power of Self-Direction as Shown by:			
A. Habit of Planning Work Effectively...			
B. Persistence of Effort.....			
C. Habit of Working Independently.....			
IV. Attitude Toward Group Responsibilities and Participation in Group Activities			

Note: Any comment under this heading takes into account (1) a student's recognition of her own individual, personal obligation to contribute to the settlement of group problems, and (2) her assumption of personal responsibility for action in accordance with her ability, information and opportunity. A teacher's experience with and knowledge of a particular student may not always be sufficient to permit her to make a worthwhile comment. Often, therefore, no estimate is offered in this section.

	Superior	Good	Acceptable	Weak	Fails to Meet Minimum Requirements
Summary or General Estimate of Accomplishment					

SPECIAL COMMENT:

teacher can point out, both to him and to his parents, the progress he has made and his outstanding achievement in responsibility, cooperativeness, and other characteristics. With a gifted student who is getting A's without putting forth real effort, the teacher can discuss one's responsibility for his gifts and can translate the mark on the report card into one that shows the relation of the student's achievement to his ability. Thus by means of brief comments on the report card, a paragraph or two of interpretation and recommendation, or a few minutes' conversation with students and parents, the teacher can extract guidance value even from the old-fashioned type of report card.

More fortunate is the teacher who has a report card of a better type, worked out cooperatively by teachers, parents, and students. Periodic reports on achievement are most helpful in guidance when they

1. Are accurate.
2. Measure the main objectives set up by the school.
3. Show a student where he can improve.
4. Interpret his achievement in relation to his own ability to achieve, as well as in relation to standards for college entrance or the requirements of different vocational fields.
5. Show progress and give the student a sense of growth.
6. Minimize competition.
7. Include the student's appraisal of himself.

The relation of marks to success in further study, and the lack of consistency in policy from elementary school to high school and from high school to college present real problems. To meet this difficulty one school introduced a grade P, which meant that a student had reached a level of achievement commensurate with his ability but not high enough to indicate success in the college preparatory or commercial courses. The grade of P counted as a credit in the general course but not in the other courses. This system of marking permitted a student to try any course and allowed him to shift gradually into the general course without a sense of failure or loss of time.

Attendance Regulations. Policies of attendance likewise reflect the personnel point of view and affect personnel procedures. As we have already noted, attendance is closely related to success. The student who is assigned work that is too difficult for him, who brings home failing marks on his report cards, who is not making friends or being accepted by his group, tends to withdraw from school. This withdrawal may take the form of absence because of ill health real to the student but psychological in origin, truancy, or dropping school altogether if the law permits. Obviously all the school conditions already mentioned are involved in the attendance problem. The administrator with the personnel point of view has one basic policy with respect to attendance: to make any adjustment in the student's schedule that furthers his best development.

Theory of Discipline. Discipline may be handled as an administrative problem or as a guidance problem. The way it is handled depends upon one's definition of discipline. If discipline means the meting out of penalties for certain offenses, then it is an administrative matter. If discipline means treatment that enables the disciple or learner to grow toward self-direction and self-control, then it is obviously a matter of guidance. To deal with discipline in the guidance way requires:

1. An understanding of the student.
2. An understanding of the conditions out of which socially disapproved behavior arises.
3. Mutual respect and affection on the part of counselor and counselee.
4. A counseling procedure in which the student achieves insight into why he behaved as he did and how he can handle his relationships better in the future.

Counseling that deals with so-called disciplinary behavior does not require a unique kind of interview. It merely demands that the teacher listen and learn, focus attention on the future rather than on the particular problem behavior, and help the student to work out his own solution. If, for

the sake of the group who have not yet acquired the personnel point of view toward their fellows, a penalty is necessary, the student should understand this and accept it. If he recognizes that the teacher is really interested in him as a person, he is likely to cooperate in making the most of school or college life.

✓ Conclusion ✓

To some readers, this chapter may seem to have little bearing upon the role of the teacher in personnel work. Yet to the writer it seems to present fundamental considerations. In order to take his place most effectively in his school or college, the teacher needs to be familiar with the pattern of personnel work that has developed there. Because he may have a part in developing the local personnel program, he should be familiar with different forms of organization and the criteria by which he can judge a good program. The more he knows, the more intelligently he will be able to cooperate. His work with students will be most effective if teachers and administrators have a common concept of the best way to work together.

Even more necessary is an awareness of the conditions that interfere with or are conducive to the personal development and guidance of students. Neglect of these conditions precipitates problems, whereas care in creating favorable conditions makes a great deal of remedial personnel work unnecessary. It is obvious that the teacher should put his emphasis on the preventive, developmental aspects of guidance.

Although a certain amount of organization facilitates guidance work, administrative machinery is never a substitute for the impact of personality on personality that is the warp and woof of the guidance process.

III

RESOURCES FOR THE TEACHER

Teachers frequently need help. Their preparation for guidance has been inadequate; their time is limited. Moreover, child and adolescent development is complex and many-sided and often requires cooperative efforts.

↵ Illustrations of Sound Cooperative Effort ↵

The following cases illustrate how a school nurse, a dean of women, and an expert in counseling and psychotherapy may assist teachers when they have reached the end of their own resources and skill.

A Problem of Health Counseling. In this case the school nurse was able to help both teacher and student.

In a mining town where social and economic conditions were poor and no machinery was in operation for making conditions better, a seventeen-year-old girl was causing difficulty, especially for the teacher of physical education. Betty and her classmates had grounds for their dislike of the physical education period; the teacher, a specialist in foreign languages, was neither interested in physical education nor prepared to direct work in it. Betty had been cutting classes and was unfavorably influencing the attitude of the other girls. When told she must bring in a medical certificate in order to be excused from further classes, she triumphantly produced one. Other girls were ready to use the same tactics.

Betty herself saw no value in the physical training classes.

Furthermore, she was gaining attention and prestige from her antics in class and her defiance of the teacher. Betty's parents were not interested in education. They had had little themselves and felt that they got along well enough. They considered Betty quite smart and enjoyed her accounts of how she got the better of the teachers.

The school nurse served as the coordinator in this case. First, she saw the doctor. She explained that Betty's certificate had been brought to her attention and that she was anxious to help the girl arrange a health program. After describing Betty's behavior in class and the teacher's problem, the nurse asked for a diagnosis and a statement as to the length of time the certificate was to be in force. The doctor explained that the girl had come to him complaining of menstrual pain. He had felt that it would be advisable to excuse her for a few days, but saw no reason for continuing to excuse her. When the nurse asked him if he would like her to talk to Betty about menstrual hygiene, he looked relieved and said he thought it would be a good idea. She outlined her usual procedures and asked for suggestions. He approved of the method she outlined.

The nurse's next step was to visit Betty's home. Mrs. K—— said she had never discussed menstrual hygiene with her daughter. Betty had found out about it from other girls, just as her mother had done. The mother had no objection to having the nurse discuss menstrual hygiene with Betty but gave the impression that she thought the nurse might find some more useful work to do. However, after the nurse had explained the kind of information that she gave the girls and asked for Mrs. K——'s opinion and suggestions, Mrs. K—— became more enthusiastic. They agreed that the mother would say nothing about the matter until Betty brought it up herself.

The next interview was with Betty. The nurse noted that Betty had poor posture and a mild case of acne and that there was dirt under her painted fingernails. But her engaging grin aroused in the nurse a genuine liking for the girl. She frankly told Betty that she had gone to the doctor to find out how she could be helped through facilities available in the school. The girl answered her questions fully and intelligently and was interested in the charts and diagrams that helped to explain how constipation, faulty posture, and other factors could cause menstrual pain. Betty wanted to know whether pimples and menstruation had any connection. They discussed this problem at length and together worked out a personal hygiene schedule which Betty could

follow. At the end, the nurse asked Betty if she could see where physical education might fit into her program. Betty gave several good reasons and the nurse said that those were the reasons why the school required physical education. Betty was surprised that gym was a school requirement; she had thought of it as being the teacher's requirement.

"I know for a fact," the nurse said, "that if Miss A—— had her way you'd be skating instead of being in gymnasium." (Miss A——'s enthusiasm for figure skating was well known, and skating was Betty's favorite recreation.)

To the next question, "When do you feel that you can go back to regular physical education classes?" Betty answered, "Tomorrow, I guess."

In talking over the interview with Miss A——, the nurse tried to interpret the adolescent's point of view and suggested that she try to relate exercises and folk dances to a good figure, posture, and grace. As a result of working with the nurse on this problem, Miss A—— was able to see her guidance responsibilities a little more clearly.

In these ways the school nurse was able to get a number of people—doctor, teacher, mother, and the girl herself—to improve Betty's health and personal appearance. In the process everyone gained more insight into the development of adolescent girls.

Psychological Assistance to a Teacher. Cooperative effort marshaled by the dean solved this problem.

In a college of home economics, failure in chemistry was destroying the self-confidence of a number of conscientious and previously successful students. They spent a disproportionate amount of time on this subject, to the neglect of other courses. One of these girls, Pauline, who was above average in intelligence and scholarship, was particularly discouraged. The dean of women called a case conference. Present were the psychologist who gives the placement tests and the girl's teachers, including the chemistry teacher. The psychologist pointed out that the correlation between scores on the mathematics placement test and marks in chemistry was fairly high. Pauline had scored low in the mathematics test, although she had ranked average or higher in the other placement tests. The chemistry professor, who attributed most of the failures in his subject to inability to do

the math problems, recommended that all freshmen whose placement test scores in mathematics were low be advised to take a preliminary course in mathematics. Several of the home economics professors suggested that the chemistry course would be more meaningful to their students if it could be related more closely to the problems of food and textiles. Re-examination of the teaching method in chemistry was also considered. The psychologist agreed to spend part of each period for several weeks in giving instruction and practice in reading the chemistry text, laboratory manual, and reference books. He agreed to prepare the practice exercises for this work if the chemistry teacher would help decide what kind of information students should be expected to get from each passage.

In this situation the dean was able to mobilize existing resources through the case conference. The personnel work took the form of creating conditions that prevented unnecessary failure and maladjustment.

Expert Counseling Needed. In some cases the solution requires highly specialized training.

Clarence was fourteen years old and either unwilling or unable to "be his age." Although he had an IQ of 120—the highest in the school—he was barely keeping up with his ninth grade classes. Obviously he was not using his mental ability, carrying his share of responsibility, or accepting the fact that everyone has to grow up. As Clarence saw it, the problem was that a hard and bitter world was no longer amused at his childish antics. His attempts to "get by" in school without working and to shirk social responsibility had failed. As the parents saw it, the problem was hopeless: Clarence would argue by the hour, cry if thwarted, slip out from under responsibility, and always wear them down and get his own way. The father and mother were separated, and each blamed the other in a childish way for their broken home. Clarence lived with his mother, but his father visited him about once a month.

When he came to the new school, he had been accepted without any reference to his previous school difficulties. The teachers took the attitude that this school would stimulate him to act his age, as it had done in other cases. They made an effort to interest him in sports, club work, academic work commensurate with his ability, and suitable responsibilities. Clarence, however, did not

respond to these favorable environmental conditions. He was noisy, untidy, uncooperative, and influential with a small group of younger boys whom he dominated and led into mischief.

The psychologist advised promoting Clarence a grade in the hope that the more advanced work would challenge him to use his intelligence more effectively. But Clarence resisted this suggestion. "I'm hardly passing now," he said. "How could I do harder work?" He seemed incapable of taking this new responsibility.

In this case, methods of adjustment through the group failed. Clarence's talks with teachers did not reach the root of his trouble or help him to understand why he behaved as he did. Evidently he was in need of expert psychotherapy—as were his parents also.

↗ Need for the Warning,
"Hands Off, Teachers" ↘

It is well for teachers to recognize that they should not attempt to deal with certain kinds of cases. Among these are cases involving:

Health and physical conditions that require the attention of a nurse or doctor.

Severe emotional disturbances, indicated by extreme and persistent unhappiness and depression, thoughts of suicide, extreme overconscientiousness, withdrawal from social contacts, feeling of guilt and personal responsibility for everything that goes wrong, extreme neglect of personal appearance, very marked distractability, unfounded suspicion and fears.

Problems deep-seated in home conditions.

To know when to call in a specialist is difficult. In general, if the difficulty is of long standing, if it pervades many areas of life, if it gets worse instead of better despite the teacher's efforts to provide a more suitable school environment and to help the child to understand himself, if physical defects or parents' attitudes make a solution of the problem patently impossible—then the teacher should seek help. It is the

responsibility of the principal to acquaint teachers with the guidance resources in the school and to give the best-qualified person in the school system the responsibility for making connections with outside agencies.

The teacher's skill in referring a case contributes greatly to the success of the treatment. Sometimes he must spend several interviews in helping the student get a clear idea of the kind of service offered and arousing in him a sense of responsibility for taking advantage of this service.

The advice, "Refer case to a specialist," is sometimes given too glibly. Much harm may be done by referring to a specialist a child who shows some slight behavior difficulty. Both child and parents may get the idea that there is something abnormal about him. Antagonizing the parents and giving the child the idea that he is a "mental case" may be fully as serious as not referring a genuinely abnormal case to the specialist. From one point of view it is desirable to call a specialist when deviations appear. From another angle it may be best not to magnify these deviations, for sometimes personality difficulties clear up of their own accord.

In schools having no specialists the teacher needs as much specialized education as he can secure. In this book references on mental hygiene, educational and vocational guidance, and other phases of work with individuals are suggested. These references will supply necessary background but should be supplemented by courses in the special phases of guidance in which the teacher is most interested.

No general answer can be given to the question: Should a teacher do what he can with a case requiring technical knowledge and skill when there is no more expert person to whom to refer it? This situation is somewhat analogous to that of a drowning man viewed from the shore by a person with no life-saving training or equipment. The sensible thing to do in such a case is to try as many measures of rescue as possible that are certain not to endanger further the patient or his would-be helper. For example, in a health problem there are certain general principles of diet and rest that can be recommended. In most emotional problems an individual is usually helped by having an opportunity to "talk it out"

in the presence of an understanding person. The teacher should do whatever he can, seeking first the advice of the most competent person in his environment and then getting help from as many other services as may be available. Teachers are frequently accused of making serious mistakes in dealing with their students, but the failures of specialists, if they were all known, would likewise make an alarmingly long list.

Fortunately, the teacher is not wholly alone. Even in schools and communities having the least resources for personnel work, the teacher can count on some help. There is the principal, who is the responsible head of the school. There are fellow teachers with special abilities and training. In the most isolated community there is usually a doctor, a minister, or some other person of natural wisdom to whom a perplexed teacher may occasionally refer baffling cases.

In more adequately staffed schools a counselor, dean of girls, dean of boys, or other broadly trained personnel worker may be employed full time. In school systems, the services of psychologists, visiting teachers or school social workers, vocational guidance experts, psychiatrists, or the staff of a guidance bureau or clinic may be available. Specialists from the county or state department of education may be called upon to assist teachers in local schools.

In the community, social and civic organizations, mental hospitals, youth-serving agencies, and parents individually and in groups are often eager to work with the teacher in providing the group experiences that students need, in counseling special cases, and in supplying funds to meet emergencies. We shall now consider the assistance in personnel work that teachers may expect from administrators and specialists.

✓ The Contribution of the School Principal¹ ✓

Teachers may expect many kinds of assistance from the principal in his role as supervisor, administrator, and pro-

¹ Readers associated with a college or university may substitute "president," and those working in schools of nursing, "director."

moter of good public relations. He should have the guidance program at heart. He should be an inspiration to teachers and have faith in their ability. He should kindle their enthusiasm for doing right by every student, the while he recognizes the difficulties under which they work. Far too many young teachers have lost their first enthusiasm and have gradually deteriorated or become routinized because they did not have the leadership of an inspiring principal.

In situations where the personnel point of view is not prevalent among the teachers, much of the blame rests with the administrative officers. For example, in one school an apathetic attitude toward personnel work prevails—an attitude set largely by the administrator. There are few clubs, though the community is becoming concerned about increasing juvenile delinquency. In another school, the principal believes that personnel work is the hub of good education. He has employed an experienced and tactful personnel worker to implement his enthusiasm. As fast as openings occur for advisers, homeroom counselors, and club sponsors, teachers are eager to volunteer.

If the principal has vision, he sees the program of personnel work as a means of attaining the fullest growth of each person, whether teacher or student. He shares his philosophy with teachers; his spirit pervades the school. In the light of his vision all move forward together. They will move forward as congenial colleagues, if the principal is skillful in selecting new members of his staff who are properly qualified teachers with the personnel point of view—teachers with diverse gifts, each of whom makes his unique contribution to the program.

The principal places each teacher in the position in which he can do his best work and get the greatest satisfaction. He can do this only if he knows his teachers individually. By observation, casual conversation, and study of the teacher's previous experience and training he can learn what kind of person he is and where his interests and special abilities lie. Some teachers may do their best work with slow-learning children; others with rapid learners. Some teachers may be securing very favorable results with a particular class and should be allowed to continue with that group over a period

of another year or more. Students may prefer certain teachers for reasons apparently well justified. Within intelligent limits the principal should respect and facilitate the individual choices of teachers and students. Thus he is able to build upon valid differences as well as upon a sound common purpose.

One of the principal's problems is to decide what work is most essential and who is best qualified to do it. By choosing a limited number of emphases, he prevents his teachers from being distracted by a multiplicity of details. After giving each teacher the most suitable assignment possible, it is the principal's responsibility to help him grow to his full stature as a teacher and as a person. This goal involves first of all satisfying relationships and opportunities for the teacher to learn how to do his job better. Industrial leaders now know that production increases when the relationship among employers, supervisors, and workers is improved. Similarly, in schools the relationships among teachers and administrators is of first importance. Unfortunately the competitive system of teacher appointment and the personal insecurity of some staff members make it difficult for teachers to accept excellence, success, or talent in each other. Petty jealousies exist. With these the principal has to cope; he should handle them with a concern for the mental hygiene of all involved. By talking with his teachers individually, he may be able to help them achieve insight and perspective. This is a counseling responsibility that the principal often has to assume because there is no one else to whom the teacher may turn. Few principals have received any preparation for this responsibility in their years of professional study. However, they can treat teachers as human beings, give them recognition for good work, and arouse their interest in working together on some common tasks that are bigger and more important than themselves. These are effective ways to develop an esprit de corps among teachers.

In addition to promoting growth through personal relationships, the principal may introduce various opportunities for teachers to improve the quality of their counseling and group work. In industry, in-service training is defined as an

employer's organized program for increasing efficiency in his employees by providing systematic instruction and practice in methods and skills essential to the improved performance of their present and future assignments. Contrasted with industry's present methods for in-service education and upgrading, the school's program seems meager and haphazard. One reason for this may be the teachers' resistance to anything that seems to them an "extra." Another reason for teachers' lack of enthusiasm for in-service education is the poor quality of many of the programs.

Instances may be mentioned, however, where teachers have been most enthusiastic about workshops, institutes, and courses. At Hinsdale, Illinois, for example, the principal's executive committee of teachers accepted one of the teacher's suggestions that the entire staff return to school a week early for an institute on guidance. During the spring and summer this committee, with the approval of the rest of the staff, worked out the program. These teachers were so genuinely concerned with improving their personnel technics that they were willing not only to return a week earlier but even to finance the cost of the institute. However, the Board of Education were more than willing to pay the expenses of the three specialists brought in to assist the teachers in the conduct of the institute.

On the first morning, one of the leaders conducted a discussion group of representative pupils on the questions: What problems are pupils facing this fall and what guidance do they want? With earnestness, frankness, and humor, these pupils conveyed their point of view to the listening teachers, who continued the discussion after the pupils had left. On another day a guidance specialist gave a demonstration of counseling procedure, using and interpreting the personnel records available to teachers. This demonstration was followed by a dramatization of previously recorded interviews, which was used as a basis for discussing interview technics. Another day was spent on group work procedures.² Several

² For more details of this program see H. F. Mossman, "An In-Service Guidance Week," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:31-38, October, 1943.

social events were also scheduled in which members of the Board of Education participated. At the end of the institute, many of the teachers said it was the most valuable educational experience they had ever had, and that they felt better prepared for their winter's work. They voted to have a similar institute the following year.

When in-service programs are planned cooperatively, deal realistically with teachers' present guidance problems, enlist specialized assistance as needed, and are conducted with a certain lightness and fun, teachers welcome rather than reject the opportunity to participate.

Although the principal's relations with the teachers, his interest in their best development, and his assistance in helping them to grow while in service are the most important factors in creating morale in the school, certain other conditions require the principal's attention. He must make certain administrative changes, such as the reduction of the teacher's clerical work, decreasing and equalizing class size, and adjusting schedules so that both pupils and teachers will have fewer classes. For example, he may discover that the percentage of failure is excessive, running as high as 50 per cent in some classes. As he studies the situation, he notes that pupils are "dragging"—not carrying—an excessive load of subjects. Neither state nor college entrance requirements make it necessary for pupils to take five major subjects. The pupils seem to be taking the extra subject as a sort of "failure insurance"; if they fail one subject, they will still have enough credits to graduate. The result is that they do poorly in all their subjects, have no study period in school, and feel constant pressure. Teachers complain that the pupils do not do their assignments; pupils complain that they have too much homework. This practice of taking extra subjects puts a burden on both teachers and pupils.

These are objective ways in which a principal may show consideration for his staff and for his pupils. It is equally necessary that he provide curricular offerings that meet every pupil's needs and that he champion better policies of attendance, promotion, marking, and discipline. By detecting and eliminating conditions that cause strain and tension and

by scheduling time for guidance, the principal frees teachers to do better personnel work.

As coordinator the principal takes the lead in developing a personnel program in which each member of the staff makes his contribution to the whole without duplication of effort and confusing diversity of counseling. He accomplishes this unity of effort by developing a common philosophy, by establishing a central guidance office where interchange of information is easy, and by providing functioning cumulative personnel records for every student.

In his public relations he creates understanding of, and enthusiasm for, a fine personnel program. Occasionally he may present to the school board and to the public case studies showing how teachers and teacher-counselors have made a difference in the lives of individual students. To some groups he may present statistics showing the need for guidance, or for an improvement in attendance, scholarship, or conduct that could be achieved by certain personnel procedures. If a committee has made a survey of the personnel work in the school, the principal may arrange to have them present their report to parents and citizens in a series of afternoon and evening meetings. Popularly written accounts of effective personnel work may be published in the local paper. In these and other ways the principal builds good will, which helps him to raise funds to finance an adequate program.

When a new principal is appointed to a school, the teachers can legitimately expect him to proceed somewhat as follows: He would first become acquainted with his teachers as persons and show appreciation of the good personnel work they are already doing. He would help them to develop and work out the good ideas they suggest and aid them in other ways to feel successful and happy as teachers and as persons. All this he would do informally at first until the teachers showed readiness to consider the personnel program more systematically. When they felt the need for a specialist in guidance, the principal would take the matter up with the board of education. If they expressed the desire for in-service education, he would help them to arrange a series of discussions and demonstrations or secure scholarships and leaves of

absence so that they could study in university centers. Thus principal and teachers would gradually and cooperatively create an organization and conditions in which they could do their best guidance work.

Sometimes the tables are turned, and the teacher plays the role of counselor to the principal. For example, one principal had acquired autocratic habits, which he carried over to a new school whose able faculty had been used to democratic procedures. He arbitrarily penalized all pupils for misbehavior, when the situation should have been handled individually with the two or three pupils who had caused the difficulty. At the last minute, for no good reason, he canceled programs that teachers and pupils had carefully prepared. Authoritarian actions of this kind stemmed from his own feelings of inadequacy and insecurity in his new situation. In this case, a number of teachers, themselves unusually emotionally mature, took the initiative in establishing a friendly relation; they talked with him casually and expressed enthusiasm for several of his ideas that coincided with what they believed to be sound practice. They gave him a "build-up" with parents and pupils. As his self-confidence increased, he began to relax and the chip came off his shoulder. After a time, he was working cooperatively and successfully with his staff. The teachers' "counseling in reverse" had worked.

The principal's relations with students are as important as his relations with teachers and the public. In a small school the principal often serves as counselor to individual students. Whether this counseling is beneficial depends upon his personality and his counseling skill. If a principal especially enjoys his personal contacts with students, there is danger that he will spend time in counseling that he ought to spend in creating conditions conducive to the good development of students and teachers.

✓ Teachers Cooperate with the Specialists ✓

The teacher's cooperation with the specialist is along three lines: (1) recognizing individual students who need the

help of a specialist, (2) supplying information about the student referred, and (3) helping to carry out the treatment recommended for an individual or a group.

The teacher who is sensitive to individuals in his class recognizes students in need of more expert help than he can offer. In order to use the services of experts to best advantage, the teacher not only talks with the student, as already suggested, but also gives the specialist as much background as possible. For example, teachers referring children to the Bureau of Child Guidance, Newark, New Jersey, are requested to fill out the following form:

BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEWARK, NEW JERSEY
BUREAU OF CHILD GUIDANCE

History to Be Submitted Before Psychological Examination

Name.....	School.....	Grade.....
Address.....	Date of Birth.....	
Place of Birth.....	Years in U.S.A.....	
Referred by.....	Date of Referral.....	
Language in Home.....	Teacher's Name.....	
Reason for Referral.....		
Description of Behavior and Personality.....		
.....		
Interests, Outside Activities.....		
Physical Handicaps.....		
Rating in School Subjects: Estimate academic work in terms of grade achievement, i.e., reading II B, etc.		
Reading	History	Art
Spelling	Geography	Music
Arithmetic	Manual Work.....	Phys. Ed.....
Estimate of Intelligence		
All intelligence and achievement test results (group and individual)		
Date	Name of Test	C.A. M.A. I.Q. Grade %ile

Promotion Record

[illegible]

Family History

FATHER		MOTHER	
Name.....	Color.....	Name.....	Color.....
Born where.....	Years in U.S.....	Born where.....	Years in U.S.....
Schooling		Schooling	
Occupation		Occupation	
Living, dead, if dead how long.....		Living, dead, if dead how long.....	
Interesting facts concerning home situation.....			
.....			
.....			

List of all children living or dead

Name	Age	School	Grade	Age and Grade at Leaving	Occupation
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					

The treatment recommended by the specialist or clinic staff that has studied the case usually involves adjustments in the school. At this point the teacher's cooperation is crucial. Without it, any specialist can only half succeed. School social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists have complained that much of their diagnostic effort is wasted because teachers do not cooperate in the treatments they suggest. This is not wholly the teacher's fault. A most important part of the specialist's job is to help teachers, through individual or case conferences, to understand how to work more effectively with individual cases.

Among the kinds of adjustment that specialists commonly expect teachers and administrators to make are the following:

1. Change in Program and Curriculum
 - a. Fewer subjects.
 - b. Substitution of easier courses.
 - c. Change to a curriculum in line with student's interests and vocational objectives.

- d.* Change to a class or section in which the average ability is similar to that of the student for whom adjustment is necessary.
 - e.* Enrichment of a course by the addition of other subjects or assignments.
 - f.* Lighter load of extraclass activities.
 - g.* Addition of club or other group activities.
 - h.* Assignment, for health reasons, to a rest or convalescent room as a substitute for physical education or other class or study period.
 - i.* Limited school day; arrangements to be made for the student to come late or leave early in order to get more rest or to adjust to a work schedule.
 - j.* Lengthened noon hour.
 - k.* Midmorning lunch of milk or orange juice.
2. Change in Methods and Materials of Instruction
- a.* Assignments adjusted to the individual, or individual "contracts," as in the Dalton plan.
 - b.* More skillful analysis of the learning process and simplified instruction.
 - c.* More individualized instruction, recognizing personal interests and goals.
 - d.* Opportunities for independent study and "research" along lines appropriate to the student.
 - e.* Provision of reading material covering a wide range of interest and reading difficulty; workbooks, and other practice material as needed.
 - f.* Provision of equipment and materials for handwork, shopwork, games, and sports needed by individual students.
 - g.* Opportunities for work experience having educational value.
 - h.* Modified activity or corrective exercises in physical education class.
 - i.* Special seating in classes to compensate for vision or hearing loss; classes arranged all on the same floor for crippled children.
 - j.* Extra set of textbooks for students who should not carry a load of books to and from school.

3. Changes in Interpersonal Relations
 - a. Introduction of the student to a small, congenial group.
 - b. Provision of opportunities for the student to use his special ability for the good of the group and so achieve recognition and a sense of worth.
 - c. Instruction in special social or athletic or other skills that will help him to take his place as an acceptable member of the group.
 - d. Enlistment of fellow students to aid in an individual's social adjustment.
 - e. Wise use of community resources for leisure.
 - f. Provision of opportunities for leadership.
4. Changes in Attitude toward the Individual.
 - a. An attitude of expecting him to make good.
 - b. An attitude of acceptance of the individual as a whole, with special regard for his best potentialities.
 - c. An attitude of genuine affection for the individual.
5. Changes in Economic Conditions
 - a. Financial assistance to enable the student to buy his lunch and meet other daily expenses.
 - b. Opportunities for remunerative work.
 - c. Relief funds obtained for the student's family.

These are only a few of the adjustments teachers can make in accordance with the individual's need. The specialist's recommendations often seem obvious, and the teacher may think, "Why, anyone could have made those recommendations." But that is not entirely true, for the rightness of the recommendation for the individual depends upon the thoroughness and accuracy of the diagnosis. It is true, however, that many of the adjustments listed should be made to further the normal development of all students.

✓ Specialists Cooperate with the Teachers ✓

To make the best use of the available resources for guidance, the teacher should be familiar with the specialized

services each expert can render. To this end, a short description will be given of what the teacher may expect of the librarian; the director of guidance, dean of girls or boys, and general counselor; the vocational guidance expert; the school nurse and doctor; the visiting teacher or school social worker; the psychologist; the psychiatrist; and the guidance clinic or center.

The School Librarian. The librarian is a frequently neglected resource. From her the teacher can obtain books on guidance problems—professional books on counseling and on homeroom organization, student council, and other kinds of group work; books and pamphlets giving occupational information; books related to personal problems in the fields of health, social hygiene, emotional adjustments, boy-girl relationships, family relationships, and reading and study difficulties. The librarian trained in bibliotherapy can contribute to the teacher's personal adjustment by suggesting books that may help him to gain insight and perspective.

The librarian can render similar services to the students. An alcove containing the latest, well-catalogued information on vocations in forms suitable for students of different levels of reading ability, a file of folders on colleges and universities, an up-to-date file on scholarships and fellowships, all are invaluable aids to educational and vocational guidance. Similarly the librarian can supply readable books that will give students insight into their personal problems.

In addition to this guidance through books, the librarian can meet the needs of individual students in a variety of ways. She can encourage some to move up the ladder of reading taste, beginning with their present interests. If time permits and she has acquired the necessary knowledge and skill, she can assist poor readers by conducting a reading clinic. By creating positions of responsibility in the library, she can bring to some students a sense of worth and to others needed financial aid. If a teacher finds that some of his students need help of these kinds, he should ascertain what his local librarian has to offer. He will usually find her eager to cooperate.

The following example of individual guidance through

information illustrates one kind of help by a librarian:

Jane, in her senior year, came to the school librarian to ask about colleges. In her sophomore and junior years Jane had been an efficient part-time worker in the library and had thus built up a friendly relation with the librarian, as well as with other members of the staff. She was interested in home economics and wanted a college that specialized in this field and could prepare her for teaching. She was financially limited in her choice, as her parents, although anxious to have her go to college, could not afford large tuition fees and boarding expenses. Still, she wanted the experience of college life away from home. She hoped to get a scholarship to help pay her expenses and thought perhaps she could work part time.

The librarian gave Jane the most recent catalogues of several colleges that met her specifications and several books giving information about colleges, among them:

MARSH, C. S. *American Universities and Colleges*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940.

HUNT, Huber W. *1939 College Blue Book*. College Blue Book, Deland, Florida, 1937.

GREENLEAF, Walter. *The Cost of Going to College*. U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Jane read these materials and compared the different colleges. She was especially interested in the college of home economics at Cornell University and asked how she might obtain more information about the scholarships offered there. The librarian advised her to write directly to the University for the most recent information. As a resident of New York State, she had the additional advantage of free tuition at that college of Cornell.

If Jane's initial vocational choice was sound, the librarian's assistance in supplying sources of information was helpful. It is possible that Jane might have needed to consider her choice more thoroughly to be sure that home economics was the most appropriate field for her in the light of her interests and abilities, and the opportunities for placement.

The Broadly Trained Personnel Worker or "Generalist."
In most schools of 250 students or more, only one special personnel worker is employed. This is a broadly trained person, known by different titles: personnel director, direc-

tor of guidance, chief counselor, dean of students, dean of girls, dean of women, dean of boys, dean of men, vice-principal in charge of guidance, administrative assistant and dean. Although the functions of this officer vary in different institutions, the teacher can expect certain services from him or her. To him, the teacher may refer students who need special help. Sometimes the "generalist" works with the case; sometimes he refers the case to the proper community agency. The teacher can count on this broadly trained worker to maintain good relationships with the world outside the school and to make connections with community agencies. When some phase of the program, such as a homeroom or activity period, is being developed, the full-time guidance worker assists the teachers by demonstrating methods, suggesting good practices, disseminating information, and working with students and parents to increase their understanding and effective participation. As coordinator, the "generalist" oversees the group work program, keeps the social calendar, approves new student organizations, arranges for case conferences, sees that relevant information finds its way into each student's cumulative record folder. As supervisor, he plans with teachers workshops, conferences, or other in-service education they want. As policy maker, he works with teachers and administrators on changes in curriculum, school policy, or procedures improving counseling and group work.

The Vocational Guidance Expert. To the specialist in vocational guidance the teacher may turn for information about occupations and for instruction in the best methods of vocational guidance. He may also use the vocational guidance specialist as a resource in complicated cases of vocational guidance and for placement services. The expert may be expected to have a knowledge of the local and regional industrial picture, of employment and training opportunities, of occupational trends, and of the best recent sources of information about vocational fields and specific vocations. He may be in charge of a school placement office or work closely with the U. S. Employment Service.

Teachers cannot be expected to collect extensive infor-

mation about employment conditions; they lack experience in matching complex personalities with equally complex job opportunities. They do not know where to turn in actually seeking suitable openings for a particular person. Realizing that it is quite possible to increase a student's anxiety and frustration by encouraging him to think through a plan that is highly appropriate to him but impossible of realization in the world as it is, they will refer complex problems of vocational guidance and placement to a vocational counselor whenever one is available.

Teachers are fortunate if they have an agency as expert as the Vocational Advisory Service of New York City to which to refer vocational guidance and placement problems. Though the staff in this agency usually has only three or four hours to devote to each client, the counselors are expert. They divide the time available into three parts:

1. The initial interview, followed by testing by a trained worker on the staff, if indicated.
2. The case conference attended by members of the staff.
3. The final interview with the client.

In the initial interview the counselor obtains an impression of the client: his physical appearance; his social assets and liabilities; his mental alertness; his family relations, childhood experiences, present interests, activities, and attitudes insofar as they seem to have a bearing on the vocational plans. The counselor fits each item into a tentative pattern as he proceeds in the interview; he sees each item as part of the total picture. Thus he emerges with conclusions of vocational significance. For example, in one case, the boy's conversational ability, his interest in writing and other intellectual activities, his high score on the vocabulary test, considered with reference to his lack of formal educational opportunities and the mechanical nature of his present work, gave the counselor the impression that here was a young man of much greater intellectual ability and interests than his present employment status indicated. This impression was supported by the many evidences he gave of his dissatisfaction with the mechanical work he had been doing and

by his low scores on mechanical aptitude tests. From these observations, interviews, and test results, the counselor evolved a sound impression of the person. This was truly creative counseling. By methods such as these the vocational counselor gets an impression of the kinds of work the counselee can do with the greatest ease, satisfaction, and success.

In the case conference several workers try to match their impression of the individual with jobs available. They also consider opportunities for his education and training. This step requires knowledge of educational opportunities, of the employment situation, and of contacts through which jobs may be obtained.

In the final interview the creative counselor helps the counselee relate each detail to the training and jobs available, keeping his abilities, interests, personality trends, and attitudes in mind. Thus the counselee is helped in making a wise decision. By following up the counselee after placement, the counselor obtains a check on his success in helping the person to choose, prepare for, enter, and progress in an appropriate vocation. Frequently, poor vocational adjustment is caused by unsolved personality problems. Unless these are solved, placement often is futile, as in the case of persons who seldom stay longer than three months on any job.

Placement is "a supervised search for jobs." Without an adequate placement service the process of vocational guidance is left unfinished. Moreover, placement in a job that is out of line with the individual's previous planning and preparation or inappropriate to his social and intellectual capabilities may have a seriously demoralizing effect. These are weighty reasons for expertness.

Cooperation between the student's school counselor and the placement office will combine the teacher-counselor's intimate knowledge of the student with the placement officer's intimate knowledge of employment and training opportunities. When the student is ready to take a job, the school counselor forwards his appraisal of the student to the placement office. There the student registers and is inter-

viewed by a placement worker. After he is placed in a job, the employer reports on his progress to the placement office. In turn, this office reports to the school. Constant readjustment is made until the student settles down in the most appropriate job that can be found. From this follow-up, the teacher learns much about the qualifications employers require and about the points at which the school has failed to prepare its students vocationally.

The School Nurse and Doctor. In many schools the nurse is the only specialist employed. From her, teachers have learned to expect much assistance in guidance. She has intimate knowledge of home conditions and relationships. One teacher found it very helpful to go over her roll of new students with the nurse and learn about each family the nurse had visited.

The family-centered work of the nurse frequently gets at the roots of school problems. By helping parents to greater fulfillment, she contributes to the children's best development, as the following illustration shows:

A nurse came into contact with one woman who had five children, the oldest twelve, the youngest a four-months-old baby. The mother was considering taking a job. By helping her decide to stay at home, the nurse probably prevented serious maladjustment of these children. The nurse found these factors in the situation: the family was, at the moment, under no financial stress; the neighborhood had a high delinquency rate; nursery school was too expensive; the mothers of neighboring families went out to work; the brunt of the care of the smaller children would fall on the twelve-year-old girl. The nurse raised questions like these for the mother to consider: "Do you feel that going out to work is necessary?" "Who would take care of the children while you were working?" "Don't you think the care of four small children is quite a lot of responsibility for a twelve-year-old girl?" "You have given your children very good care, Mrs. F—. How do you feel about leaving them alone while you are working?" "Would you like to try working out a better budget on your present income?" These questions led the mother to consider important aspects of the problem that she had overlooked. As a result, she decided that she would wait until the

baby was older before attempting to get work outside the home. Later she considered other ways of increasing the family income: working part time while her husband was at home, getting her younger sister to live with them for a while and take care of the baby, getting her husband a raise, taking care of neighbors' children for a small remuneration, since success with her own children indicated an aptitude for this kind of work.

If children lack proper psychological and physical care at home, if they have uncorrected remediable impairments, if they do not receive proper convalescent care, if they are unnecessarily exposed to infection on the school bus or in school—in short, if health is neglected, attempts at guidance will be defeated. For this reason the teacher looks to the nurse and school doctor for essential assistance.

In the University High School, Oakland, California, teachers are given a special blank to facilitate referral to the doctor of any pupil whose health seems to need special attention. The blank includes a list of reasons for referral, which the teachers check: routine examination, health history, modification in school program or in extracurricular program, frequent absences, nervous or emotional disturbance, mental hygiene, malnutrition, personal hygiene, fatigue, colds, heart, menstruation, breathing difficulty, eyes, hearing, teeth, skin. There is also space in which the teacher can state his reason for referral in more detail. The teacher requesting the information signs his name and indicates the subject he teaches. Below are spaces for the physician's findings, recommendations of the health case conference, and any adjustments that are made. In the end, the blank is returned to the teacher who made the referral.

The School Social Worker or Visiting Teacher. When a teacher realizes that home relationships are tearing down the better side of a student's personality as fast as he tries to build it up, he welcomes assistance from a social worker who understands human nature and school conditions and has time to work with parents and teacher somewhat as follows:

A teacher was perplexed by a boy's behavior. When he got up to read, he made up imaginary stories instead of reading

the text; he did other things to disorganize the class. When the teacher spoke to him about it and put her hand on his shoulder in a friendly way, he said in a surly tone, "You take your hands off me." All this, and more, the teacher told to the school social worker in response to questions such as, "Tell me more about the way he behaves in class." "Is he good in some subjects?" "And you don't think he is 'just bad,' as he says?"

After this talk with the teacher, the school social worker visited George's home. She observed that both parents held up his older brother as a model. "Bert never makes trouble for us, as George does," they said. In the course of conversation, she asked, "Why did you think I came to see you about George?" "Why did you say you *used to* go out walking with George?" "How does George feel about that?" From their replies she gained a better understanding of the family relationships and helped the parents to gain some insight into why George was behaving as he did. She made only one general observation: that sometimes children get the idea that their parents do not love them, and it is therefore necessary to make a point of showing affection. She gave only one suggestion: that they plan some family affair in which George could share fully.

After the home visit, the school social worker again talked with the teacher. "You were right, Miss B——," she began. She told the teacher how her home visit had confirmed Miss B——'s impression that George was not a "bad" boy but a misunderstood boy. During this conference the teacher suggested several things she herself could do: give George special help in reading without making him appear conspicuous, see that he got recognition for his really fine work in arithmetic, promote his election to a position of responsibility in the class.

The problem was not solved at once, but the teacher noted that George improved during the year. Both teacher and parents were pleased with this turn for the better in George's behavior, and George himself was far happier.

It takes time to change long-established behavior—more time than the teacher can give. For example, it required much interviewing on the part of an able school social worker before any real change was effected in the attitude of one boy who thought of himself as a "juvenile delinquent" and had a long record of truancy, unwillingness to conform, and increasing ability to lie himself out of situations. As a

child at home, he had had his own way about everything. The school he attended was one where practically all the pupils voluntarily conformed to regulations. This sudden change of conditions was more than he could "take." In a school where freedom of choice was allowed, his lack of inner control became evident. However, with the help of the school social worker this boy figured out that he alone was able to make other persons think well of him and that the best way to accomplish this was to do his work and get along with his fellow students and teachers. He then made a real effort to work his way back into people's respect.

By working closely with an experienced social worker on individual cases, the teacher gains a better understanding of the factors that influence child and adolescent behavior and of how to handle these factors in school. Each case carries its special opportunities for learning. By working with the parents, the social worker and teacher are able to relieve tensions in the home, so that they will not continue to interfere with the child's adjustment in school.

The School Psychologist. The teacher cooperates by supplying information about the student who is referred to the specialist. In this very process the teacher may gain new insight into the student as well as share his knowledge of the student with the psychologist. If the teacher participates in a conference and plans with the specialist the best ways of working with the student in a group and in individual conferences, all concerned profit by the experience. The teacher can expect the specialist to help him learn new methods of teaching reading or other subjects and to "stand by" if complications arise.

The teacher who has referred a student to a specialist wants to know, and has a right to know, what diagnosis and treatment are given. If the psychologist has administered tests, he should take time to explain their results to the teacher. He may also use his knowledge of modern educational methods and trends to assist the teacher in making and using informal tests that can be used for teaching purposes as well as for their diagnostic value.

In order to cooperate most fully with the psychologist, the teacher needs recommendations that are

Specific, not general.

Expressed in language that the teacher can understand and accept.

Related to the school's procedure.

Possible to carry out within the limitations of the teacher's time, equipment, and specialized skills.

Free from any implications that the teacher is to be blamed.

Made with respect to procedures in which the psychologist is specially competent, not with respect to matters with which the teacher feels he is more expert.

The teacher should not expect too much of the specialist. By giving a mental test, the psychologist cannot raise a student's IQ. By referring a case, the teacher is not thereby relieved of further responsibility for the student's adjustment. He should not minimize the importance of his daily work with the student. Like other specialists, the psychologist is a resource, not a crutch.

The Psychiatrist. The purpose of the psychiatrist is to help an individual understand and accept himself and learn to establish a positive and helpful relation with others. Occasionally a teacher has in his class students who are emotionally sick. The number of these increases from elementary school through college. Cases in which environmental conditions seem to be the chief factor he will refer to the social worker. To the psychiatrist, an M.D. with more or less training in mental hygiene and pathology; the teacher will refer cases in which treatment of inner conflicts is indicated.

The following case illustrates the use of a psychiatrist in a school of nursing:

Mildred, at nineteen years of age, was one of a class of sixty students in a school of nursing. She was the adopted daughter of an elderly woman with whom she had lived happily for many years. According to elementary school records, she had a Binet IQ of 120. During high school years her marks had been good and she was still maintaining her high scholarship.

However, her intimate contact with girls of her own age in the

nurses' residence was bringing to the fore many doubts and fears that withdrew her attention from her school work. The situation became acute when she was put on a ward that tests the students' response to the total patient situation, their manual dexterity, their ability to organize their work, and their promptness and accuracy in carrying out instructions. One supervisor reported that Mildred's work had been very unsatisfactory on Ward H and advised giving her another chance on a second ward.

The supervisor on the second ward, noticing that the student appeared frightened and disorganized, introduced her to her new duties by saying, "I think you will like your work here—most of the students do. You will probably feel a little strange for a day or two. I'm here to help you, so don't hesitate to come for assistance at any time." After assigning her to two of the simplest tasks on the ward and introducing her to her patients, the supervisor went to breakfast. When she returned from breakfast, the supervisor found that Mildred was accomplishing nothing. She asked her to come into the office. When the supervisor asked what was wrong, Mildred burst into tears and said she could never become a nurse because of her social background.

As the supervisor did not have the time or the skill to talk with the girl she asked the director whether the staff psychiatrist would see her. This he did the same day and several times later. He also saw the mother. Meanwhile, the supervisor assigned Mildred to work with a senior student who was familiar with the routine of that ward. After the first interview with the psychiatrist, the girl seemed happier. Later the supervisor was able to tell her how pleased the patients were with her work. As she gained confidence and her work improved she became more and more independent of the senior student. There was no further difficulty; it was a pleasure to watch her work. She had no difficulty in any other department and graduated with honors.

The supervisor handled this emergency situation well. The period of stress and strain, however, might have been prevented if the student's record had been studied earlier and if she had had a chance to talk out her fears and to convince herself that she had many outstanding qualities and good potentialities for success in the field of nursing.

The modern psychiatrist serves two distinct needs. One is people's need to realize their latent potentialities. If they recognize their wasted resources, they may work out a more

satisfactory life. This is the creative need for psychiatric help. The second is a neurotic need. When the individual feels that the neurotic pattern by means of which he has tried to adjust to life is breaking down, he feels the need for help. Psychiatric service in schools and colleges should be largely of the creative kind.

After a student has been skillfully referred to a well-qualified psychiatrist, the teacher should be prepared to cooperate in carrying out the psychiatrist's suggestions for adjustments needed in the school. The length of psychiatric treatment depends upon the individual's ability to gain insight and to work out his insights in school and at home. Treatment cannot be considered successful until the individual has worked out satisfactory relations to the prevailing ethical climate. Through his control of the school environment, the teacher can make it easy or difficult for the student to convert his newly discovered insights and social feelings into everyday behavior, as he himself must do if he is to realize actually his best potentialities.

The institution or school system that has a competent psychiatrist on its staff is fortunate. In addition to working with teachers on individual cases, he is an excellent person to participate in the in-service education program. He may contribute by presenting actual cases with which he has worked, interpreting the behavior involved, and emphasizing the teacher's and supervisor's role in them. This kind of invaluable service to the mental health of school children has been given by Dr. James Plant, Director, Essex County, New Jersey, Juvenile Clinic, in conferences with teachers.

The Child Guidance Clinic. The child guidance clinic comprises a staff of specialists who may work in either of two ways: (1) each worker may take primary responsibility for the diagnosis and treatment of certain types of cases referred to him, or (2) each worker may study each child from his specialized point of view, then all may pool their information in the case conference and jointly make plans for treatment. The teacher may expect the following services from the child guidance clinic:

1. Information on the kinds of cases that can be treated by the clinic.
2. Leadership in promoting mentally hygienic attitudes and procedures in the schools.
3. Thorough diagnosis and treatment of the suitable cases referred to the clinic by the principal.
4. Assistance in referring to other agencies the cases that the clinic is not able to treat.
5. Assistance in understanding the student and how he can be helped in the school.
6. Courses for teachers, offered in schools in which the clinic is working, to reinforce the effectiveness of its work with individuals.

It should always be kept in mind that if a guidance clinic or bureau causes teachers to lose their sense of responsibility for guidance, it has failed.

✓ Teachers' Relations with the Community ✓

The community may be the teacher's most important resource for guidance. By supplying services and experiences through organized agencies, it supplements the teacher's contribution. Since the local conditions within it profoundly influence child and adolescent development, the community becomes a potent factor in individual development and guidance. It is the teacher's responsibility to use its constructive influences and to help modify, control, or eliminate its destructive forces.

There are a number of ways in which teachers can find out about the community's needs and resources for guidance. In one community where the need for better family life, health, clothing, food, medical care, and recreation was very great, the teachers determined to do something to meet the needs of their pupils. After many conferences they decided to make a family survey. They formed teams, each of which surveyed a certain number of homes. The following kinds of information were then compiled by a committee:

Homes interviewed	390
Children in community	
Ages 1-5	293
6-15	939
16 and over	1,410
Homes with electricity	315
Homes without electricity	75
Homes with gas	38
Homes without gas	352
Homes with running water	231
Homes without running water	59
Homes with central heating system	1
Homes with stoves	389
Homes with bath	79
Homes without bath	311
Educational background of parents	
Elementary school	382
High school	145
College	5
Religious training and participation	
Actual church membership	24
Broken homes	
No father in home	61
Unmarried parents	17
No mother	3

In making these quantitative summaries the teachers did not lose sight of individual families and their needs. For example, they found that one family of five—a mother and four children—on relief got \$26 per month. Out of this they paid \$10 per month for house rent. The father was dead and the mother was often sick. There was a seventeen-year-old daughter who worked when she did not have to stay home to wait on her sick mother. One child at a time went to school, while the others waited their turn to wear the one pair of shoes. In another home, two little boys were alone. The older stammered so badly that it was difficult to understand him. The younger said he could not go to school because his mother had no time to dress him.

As a result of this survey the teachers gained more understanding of the children in their classes, paved the way for a closer relationship between home and school, and made active efforts to change conditions. They had seen with their

own eyes how bad they were. They held a mass meeting of parents and teachers to discuss ways in which the most pressing needs could be met. Teachers should not have had to do this emergency work. But, others failing, they felt they could not fail the children.

The school, however, should take part in constructive community projects. Flanner House in Indianapolis is a shining example of people working together on the problems of a community. On the border of a slum area were the ruins of an abandoned tile factory, which the city was persuaded to buy and rent to the Settlement for one dollar a year. Here there was room for a neighborhood house, health center, workshops, playgrounds. All those interested went to work. They sorted and cleaned the bricks and then helped build them into a new and attractive structure. They built and painted the doors, cupboards, and other interior equipment. Thus it became their building. By the same cooperative method they are planning to rebuild the neighboring slums. These people have helped themselves and gained happiness by overcoming the obstacles to a good life.

This idea of working together for a better community—better houses, recreational equipment, gardens, community canning and freezing equipment for family use, a day nursery, a toy library, workshops where home equipment can be made—may be carried out in many forms under different auspices. It may be initiated by the school, as in Greenville, South Carolina,³ or by a settlement like Flanner House.⁴ In any form, it represents a fundamental attack on the problem of building better people and a better community.

Social work has long recognized the need for social action and social research, the while it tries to deal, through group work and case work agencies, with the victims of poor heredity and environment. Some large towns and cities are rich in social work resources. With these agencies the school should work closely. The first step is usually to appoint a

³ George Kent, "Mill Town Miracle," *School and Society*, 54:81-85, August 9, 1941.

⁴ Roger William Riis and Webb Waldron, "Fortunate City," *Survey Graphic*, 34:339-341 +, August, 1945.

committee to obtain information about available agencies and summarize the significant facts about each. The following is one page from such a survey made by a committee in one school system:

THE — CLINIC

Dr. —	Dr. —	Miss —
Medical Director	Psychologist	Chief of Social Service

To make referrals contact—Miss —

The — Clinic is supported by the — Community Chest. Clinic services are free. It is primarily for children in the metropolitan area. The age is 18. Children of all races, religion, and economic status are accepted.

The chief function of the Clinic is to deal with problems having their roots in attitudes and feelings of the child which result in behavior of either an anti-social or withdrawn type. Speech disorders; special learning disabilities are also treated and vocational guidance is offered. The Clinic does not accept cases where the difficulty is primarily mental retardation. However, members of the staff are always ready to talk with teachers and principals regarding a child in cases where, although there is retardation, the behavior is of concern to the school, in order to determine whether there is service which can be given.

The Clinic works with both the parents and the child. The responsibility for coming must rest with the parents. For this reason, it is desirable that anyone wishing to refer a child should first tell the parents about the Clinic as a resource available to them. Before this is done, the Clinic would appreciate having the referring person discuss the problem briefly over the telephone and, if a principal or teacher wishes, an appointment will be made with a worker from the Clinic to discuss the situation in more detail at the school.

The Social Service Exchange, an overall agency that keeps a record of every case contacted by any social agency, is a valuable service available in many large towns and cities. School cases should be cleared with this Exchange by the principal, personnel worker, or a qualified teacher who has been assigned this responsibility. The Exchange can acquaint the school representative with any previous history of a case and

thus avoid some errors in counseling. It is usually essential to know about the background of a case before acting in behalf of the client.

Another step is to arrange for personal contacts between representatives of the schools and of social agencies. An example of such helpful exchange of ideas comes from Hartford, Connecticut. The Director of Guidance invited representatives from the Y's, the Scouts, and other group work agencies to meet with some of the school counselors and teachers. The group work agencies were eager to learn what the schools were doing and how they could best reinforce and supplement the school's contribution.

Teachers may learn much from members of group work and case work staffs who are highly trained in group work technics and counseling. It should be possible for teachers to observe a skillful leader in action and to have representatives from social agencies conduct workshops or discussions for groups of teachers.

We must emphasize again here the importance of having well-qualified workers to deal with complex personal problems. Well-intentioned persons without training can do harm. Unless they have an innate kindness and an understanding of why children and young people behave as they do, they may intensify the difficulties of the persons they want so much to help. Counseling can be good or bad, helpful or destructive.

It should be noted that environment may be beneficial as well as harmful to an individual. Life is itself a therapist. Philosophy, religion, love, are the three great natural therapeutic agencies. In many individual cases it is possible for the teacher to enlist these environmental forces on his side.

Change of environment alone, however, does not solve behavior problems. Unless children's attitudes are changed, they may carry over into a new environment the very attitudes and habits that have been causing difficulty. For example, children who enter foster homes with unresolved conflicts are likely to apply these attitudes, in varying degrees, to their foster parents. Thus it is important to try to effect a satisfactory adjustment, if possible, in the child's present environ-

ment before resorting to a change of surroundings. Learning to adjust to unreasonable people in a difficult situation results in growth, which cannot be attained by running away.

There are situations, however, that are unalterable, or too complex for the particular individual to cope with. Then a change in environment is clearly indicated. In order to be most beneficial this change should be made with full consideration of the adaptations required by the new conditions.

✓ Teachers' Relations with the Parents ✓

Parents, too, are a resource. Every parent wants his child to make the most of himself. Their years of intimate contact with their children have given parents information that teachers could not possibly acquire from their more limited observation. Therefore, they must depend on parents for students' developmental history.

If the school and the home know the conditions in each that affect the child, they can work together to create the total environment the child needs. Thus they will pull together rather than pull apart. Neither has any occasion to pass negative criticisms of the other; there is occasion only for concerted action—for doing what is best for the child under the circumstances.

Teachers need to understand parents. They should know something about the ways in which students' behavior in school is conditioned by parental relationships. Harsh, cruel, or indifferent parents may be the reason why a child is hostile to the teacher, generally rebellious and aggressive, jealous of other children, or restless and overactive. Overprotective parents who seek to satisfy their own emotional needs by means of their children hate to see them grow up and may make them overdependent, immature, unable to make a good social adjustment.

Perhaps parents such as these had unfortunate or unsatisfactory relations with their own parents in their childhood and youth. Or it may be a case of uncongenial or incompatible marital relations, lack of social contacts, thwarted per-

sonal ambition. A parent's severe illness or physical handicap may seriously affect a child's development.

The child who is well adjusted to school is usually the one who has had fond parents. When he was a baby, they gave him physical reassurance of their affection by holding him in their arms. As he grew older they showed unmistakable pleasure in his development; they were interested in his plans, his ambitions, his accomplishments, his hobbies. They treated him with respect and gave him responsibilities that he was able to fulfill at each stage of his development. They loved him for himself rather than for his accomplishments and made very clear that their disapproval of his occasional undesirable behavior did not mean disapproval of him as a person. They praised far more often than they criticized, and instead of saying, "Don't" to something he wanted to do, they often pointed out an acceptable alternative action. If he had limitations or physical handicaps, they recognized them and made adjustments to them. But, in other respects, they treated him as a normal child.

Among some groups of parents the tendency to push their children beyond their capacity is more common than the tendency to neglect them. For example, one little girl has been told by her parents that she is a genius. They occupy every minute of her time with educational activities. She is an outcast with other children, who avoid her, and with adults, whom she often disconcerts with her intrusive and thought-provoking questions and answers. She seems to be full of nervous energy and is often too preoccupied to eat. It was not until she developed severe outbursts of temper directed against her parents, her baby sister, and objects in the house that the parents realized they needed expert help and took the child to a psychiatrist. He wisely concentrated his attention on the parents and has done much to help them in the rearing and understanding of children.

Another ambitious mother created problems in her children by her overanxiety about them. That neither child was exceptional was a threat to her preconceived life plan. She said of one child, "I want to make something unusual of him." When she described the kind of person she wanted

him to be, it became evident that this concept was an extension of her own personality. She did everything for him except to let him be himself. Although she was able to tell other mothers about approved methods of bringing up children, she was incapable of applying these methods to her own children.

Parents like this often try to speed up a child's development, not realizing that it is important that children go through each of the natural stages of growth at the appropriate time. Otherwise, they may later regress to infantile behavior.

Teachers who understand how much parents' attitudes and example influence children's behavior at school as well as at home will not become annoyed by a child's hostility, aggression, or lack of social responsiveness. Nor will they blame the parents, for they will recognize that the parents' behavior, too, has its roots deep in their experiences.

Too often teachers do not appreciate the terrific personal limitations under which parents work. These are not only the limitations arising from the changing patterns of family life and fluctuations in economic conditions, but also the limitations that each one of us gradually comes to impose on his own personality. And it is these limitations, constituting what parents feel to be the faults and deprivations of their own lives, that they want their children to avoid. This is not a matter for academic consideration. When the teacher can see so clearly what is best for the child, he is prone to forget that what the parent sees in the child is the patching up of the parents' own life. It is only when teachers become aware of this tendency that they understand how it happens that they can discuss a child so logically with the most pleasant parents—and yet never get anywhere. In its best sense, child guidance is parent guidance. And at present the teacher is very poorly prepared for this responsibility.

Meetings in which parents and teachers work together help both to grow in their guidance responsibilities. The most effective meeting of the home and school association in one school was the only one of the year that was not of the lecture type. On that evening 100 per cent of the teachers

and an exceptionally large number of parents were present. Following a brief business meeting and entertainment by the pupils, the teachers went to assigned rooms, where they were visited by their pupils' parents. The meeting ended with refreshments served in the gymnasium. The lectures, though given by able and interesting speakers, left much to be desired, probably for the following reasons: the meetings were late in getting started; the lectures lasted so long there was insufficient time for discussion; the topics were so diverse that they did not produce any cumulative effect over the year.

The following year's program committee met these conditions by planning a more unified series of meetings focused on child development. By using a combination of short lecture, debate, or forum, it was possible to get the audience warmed up for discussion. As other features, pupils participated in the program, parents visited the school, teachers visited the homes, and together they sponsored trips, book reviews, study groups, and social meetings.

✧ Conclusion ✧

The teacher is like the hub of a wheel from which radiate relationship with specialists, community agencies, and parents. All these, the teacher uses for the good of the student. Thus he supplements the work that he is able to do directly with individuals and with groups. In some cases, the coordinating center shifts from the teacher to another guidance worker in the school or in the community, who, in turn, uses the teacher as one means through which a good adjustment may be affected.

Part I

QUESTIONS AND REFERENCES

✧ Questions and Problems ✧

1. What guidance or personnel services did you have in elementary school, high school, and college? Describe what you mean by personnel work or guidance.
2. How can a teacher individualize education in a class of forty students?
3. What has been the history of the teacher's responsibility for personnel work? What are the present trends in this field?
4. What is the relation between student personnel work and education?
5. Study the conditions in an institution known to you that are interfering with the teachers' working effectively with students. Suggest ways in which these conditions might be altered.
6. What are the essentials of an effective personnel program?
7. Why is there no one best program for all schools?
8. Why have some guidance programs failed?
9. How may a guidance program be developed in a school that has done little guidance work previously? How may the interest and cooperation of the teachers be obtained?
10. What conditions in the community help to make effective personnel work possible? How can the resources of your community be used more fully for the development and guidance of individuals?
11. Describe the kinds of contacts teachers may have with students in the classroom, in the student's home, at a social event at school, etc.
12. Mention some kinds of contact between students and teachers that might be harmful rather than constructive.
13. Give illustrations from your reading and from your own experience of ways in which serious maladjustment was prevented by early guidance.
14. What specialists are employed in a high school or college with which you are familiar? What do they do?

15. How many of the high schools and colleges you know employ one or more specialists in personnel work? Who offers personnel services in schools having no specialists?
16. What would you do when you receive from the nurse or health counselor a list of the pupils in your class who, in the physician's judgment, are below par in nutrition? Who have some serious defect of vision? Who need dental attention?
17. Mention ways in which the teacher or adviser can use information from the doctor's records of the health examination of pupils.
18. State specifically ways in which the teacher may cooperate for the good of the individual pupil with: the dean of girls; the dean of boys; the school psychologist; the visiting teacher; the nurse or doctor; the vocational counselor. What help can the teacher expect of each of these specialists?
19. What should be done to help a child make a good transition from elementary school to high school? From high school to college, to other educational institutions, or to work?
20. Interview several persons who have recently left school to go to work. Find out what difficulties they encountered, how the school helped them, what knowledge and skills they wish they had acquired.
21. In what ways can the school provide for every child the learning experiences he needs?
22. How can the teacher make the best use of the present curriculum?

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II

The Teacher's Various Roles

We never know how high we are
Till we are called to rise;
And then, if we are true to plan,
Our statures touch the skies.

The heroism we recite
Would be a daily thing,
Did not ourselves the cubits warp
For fear to be a king.

EMILY DICKINSON

IV

GUIDANCE IN THE CLASSROOM

Teachers should spend half their time studying their pupils as individuals, and the rest of their time doing what that study shows to be desirable and necessary.

HENRY C. MORRISON

The teacher guides as he teaches. While he conducts his class, he keeps individual students in mind. Unless he knows where each student is, he cannot start him off on any path of learning. By knowing each one he can meet the needs of all through personal relations as well as lectures, group discussions, committee work, plans for independent study, individual instruction, and casual, constructive, personal comments.

In order to use instruction as a means of guidance, the teacher should (1) know the abilities and backgrounds of his students, (2) understand as much as possible about why persons behave as they do, (3) be sensitive to the responses of individuals during the class period, (4) be alert and ingenious in making the interactions within the group serve individual needs and contribute to group goals or purposes.

✓ The First Requirement— “Know Thy Students” ✓

Knowledge leads to understanding. One teacher said, “I thought John was just lazy, until I learned about the long hours of work he was doing every day at home; then I realized that he was too tired to learn.”

Another teacher said, "Two parents were very critical of me and of the school until they saw that I was interested in their child and knew enough about her to help her make the most of herself; then they helped me in many ways."

Another teacher made this comment: "I did not know whether Peter couldn't or wouldn't do the work assigned to children of his age. But when I began to study his mental ability, I found that he was much brighter than his school work indicated."

In every class period the teacher has opportunity to "learn" his students. Their questions, answers, and contributions to discussion, as well as their written work and other kinds of creative work, give a fairly accurate impression of their mental alertness and their special knowledge, skills, or deficiencies. When students are working together on reports or projects, the teacher has a chance to observe how they get along with one another. The approach they make to the teacher gives some indication of their relationship with adults. Their response to failure, to criticism, to difficulty is also significant evidence of their stage of development. How the teacher may obtain information useful in understanding individual students, how much of it he should record and in what form, and how he may use it in the guidance of students and parents are treated more fully in Part III.

✓ Understand the "Why?" of Student Behavior ✓

When a student is not interested in school; when he is restless, inattentive, noisy; when he is lazy, careless, untidy, idle; when he shows off, acts silly, is disobedient; when he lies, cheats, steals; when he engages in masturbation or sex offenses; when he is shy, unsocial, unhappy, depressed, over-sensitive, overconscientious—the teacher should ask, "Why?" Behavior is caused. It has been learned. Whether it is good or bad, it grows out of the individual's past experiences, present circumstances, and hopes for the future. Whatever the behavior, it represents one kind of development; it is the

resultant of interaction between the individual and all the conditions of his life.

However, *all* behavior is not symptomatic. Too often, "reaction is mistaken for action"; the natural course of growth, for maladjustment. It should be kept in mind, too, that the gravity of a behavior disorder should be measured, not by how much it bothers the teacher, but by how much it bothers the child and will handicap him now and later.

Surely the importance of dealing with the conditions that give rise to observed behavior is obvious. Two students failing in the same subjects need different treatment: one may improve after he has gained recognition as an athlete; the other may need to curtail his club activities so as to have more time for study. One shy child may blossom out when taken into a congenial group; another may become more seclusive by prematurely and unsuccessfully taking part in social affairs.

Although the teacher cannot be expected to understand all the hidden springs of an individual student's conduct, he can do more effective guidance if he understands some of the interpretations of behavior that have been formulated by experts in mental hygiene.

Behavior as Development. A few of these important concepts will be mentioned here. The first is the view of human development as a gradual unfolding from egocentricity to social concern. The infant is naturally self-centered, interested in his own body and in anything in his environment that contributes to his comfort and satisfaction. As he grows older his affection becomes fixed on his mother, who normally is the source of his well-being and happiness. In his primary school teacher he often tries to find a mother substitute from whom he expects a mother's solicitude. As he passes out of the primary grades, he develops an interest in those of his own sex and tends to form gangs and cliques. During adolescence he establishes relationships with the opposite sex leading eventually to marriage and family life. Whether the well-adjusted person marries or not, his interests reach out to persons beyond his immediate circle of family and friends; his sympathies may become world-wide.

At no stage, however, do the earlier interests completely disappear. A certain amount of egocentricity, of affection for parents, and of affection for members of the same sex remains throughout life. Only when an earlier emphasis persists exclusively into the period when broader relationships should be established is retarded development indicated. It is important for teachers to recognize this pattern of growth through expanding relationships, so that they may help individuals move forward toward their fullest development as social human beings.

The emotional relationships between teacher and student may be a factor of major importance in an individual's success or failure in school. Ordinarily the normally maturing boy wants to identify himself with the masculine pattern. Academic success, however, is often not associated with masculinity. The boy is less likely to identify himself with a woman teacher than to develop an emotional attachment for her, similar to that which he has felt toward his mother. This attachment may lead him to academic success, but at the cost of inner rebellion at having surrendered his masculinity, resulting in tension and conflict. On the other hand, he may fail to make a good academic adjustment because of various internal conflicts arising out of his emotional relationship with the teacher.

The girl is more likely to identify herself with a woman teacher and to fit more readily into the academic program. This may be one reason why girls in general make higher marks and have less reading difficulty than boys. If, however, in growing up, the girl has rebelled against her feminine role or developed antagonism to her mother, she may carry these attitudes into the classroom and resist academic requirements.

Obviously the teacher should be sensitive to the interaction of his personality with that of individual students. This is one more reason why he should know his students' developmental history, their relationships with their parents, their home patterns of adjustment. It may be necessary for the woman teacher to make a point of showing boys the relation of school learning to masculine vocations and to give illustrations of great men who have been scholars. It is often

necessary for the teacher to become acquainted with the parents so that he can interpret to them his relationships with their children and plan with them a course of action.

Another view of development, closely related to the first, is equally important—the view that each individual should be helped to grow in his own best way. If teachers thought of a child as a gardener thinks of a plant or tree, they would pay more attention to providing conditions favorable to growth. Though this analogy is not perfect, since the child has within him many more diverse potentialities than a tree, nevertheless the idea of providing an environment that will give the resources within the individual the best chance to develop is fundamental to effective personnel work. To state this principle another way, school achievement should be an outgrowth of the student's own patterns of living, not a superimposed unrelated ritual. He should feel that he is initiating his own learning activities and that they contribute to the kind of person he wants to be.

Influence of Feelings of Inferiority. A second useful concept concerns feelings of inferiority and their disguised manifestations. According to one school of thought, the helplessness of the human infant leads inevitably to feelings of inferiority. This deep-seated feeling of inadequacy may crop out in bravado, cocksureness, and a pretended superiority. If a teacher, misinterpreting this inverted manifestation of inferiority, tries to “take the student down a peg,” he intensifies the very condition that has given rise to the defiant, superior air. If, on the other hand, the teacher provides opportunities for the student to gain a sense of personal worth by contributing to the group or by demonstrating his ability in some line, his need to be useful will be satisfied and his need to show off and attract attention in undesirable ways will be lessened. Feelings of inferiority are neutralized by an attitude of respect on the part of other people. Any individual tends to live up to what others think of him.

Signs of a Need for Affection. A third idea helpful in interpreting certain students' behavior is that persons have

a "basic need" for affection. This need is met in infancy by warm physical contact with the mother, or the nurse. As the baby grows older, he becomes aware in many ways of the affection of his parents. They give him food, shelter, and clothing. But soon these physical comforts are not enough. The child wants time with his parents that is exclusively his and assurance that they love him for himself, not for what he can do or be. When a child has not had this affection, he may manifest the lack of it in various ways: by seeking affection from his teacher or classmates, by withdrawing from others, or by showing hostility toward the world in general. An example of the last-named attitude follows.

An attitude of hostility toward the world in general was assumed by Peter, a red-haired boy of nine, who did not like his teacher or any of his subjects. He said he wished he could be in his brother's class because his brother liked *his* teacher. A Stanford-Binet test given when he was five years two months old indicated a mental age of six years four months and an IQ of 123. Here was a bright boy who was not doing well in school and who disliked his teacher. Recognizing this as a problem of understanding the child better, the teacher noted first that Peter was different from the other children. With most of them she had a friendly, happy relationship. They seemed to like her and to like school. So far as she knew, she had treated Peter the same as the other children. But perhaps Peter should be treated differently; perhaps he had special need for affection and recognition.

This tentative interpretation proved to be correct. At home Peter was disturbed by the quarrels between his mother and father. He was jealous of his father's relations with his mother and wanted to protect her. Moreover, he felt that his mother liked his younger brother better than him. His father, too, showed a preference for the brother and gave money to him more frequently than to Peter. He had punished them both severely for engaging in sex play with a girl of their own age when Peter was approximately seven and his brother five. Peter's behavior made matters worse. He disobeyed his mother and was impertinent, especially when others were present. His mother told Peter that he was "bad" and talked about his "badness" in front of other people.

These were some of the home troubles that Peter brought to

school. He came to school with feelings of insecurity and inadequacy, with a need for affection that the usual classroom does not meet. Change in home attitudes was of first importance, but this could best be effected by a visiting teacher or social worker. The teacher's part was to show Peter that she liked him as a person and to help him to see for himself that he could make progress by using his good mental ability. By taking time after school or in a free period, she encouraged him to talk about his home relationships. Thus he came to understand them better and to see why he behaved as he did. The next step was to try out these new insights in everyday situations.

Behavior Resulting from Conflict. A fourth concept that helps the teacher to understand certain kinds of behavior is the idea of conflict. Every individual experiences some conflicts between his more acceptable and less acceptable self, and between the kind of self he thinks he is and the kind he wants to be. These conflicts, unresolved, use up energy that might be channeled more constructively. The following is an example.

A high school boy whose mental ability, established by several reliable intelligence tests, was in the highest quarter of his age group, was getting marks that represented failure or near-failure in every subject. In a number of interviews, supplemented by a study of his cumulative records, several serious conflicts became evident. There was a conflict with respect to his vocational plans because his strongest interest was in music rather than engineering, the vocation chosen for him by his family. His family's level of aspiration for him seemed so high that he felt hopeless about reaching it. Yet he was fond of his family and wanted to please them. He seemed worried by the discrepancy between the kind of person he wanted to be and the kind of person he thought he was: he did not like people who were conceited but thought he was like that; he wanted to get good marks in school, but his marks were low; he wanted to be a responsible person, but he seldom fulfilled the responsibilities he accepted. These ideas of himself influenced his behavior. He had grown to think of himself as a person who was lazy and not very dependable, and he tended to live down to this estimate of himself.

In the counseling interviews, the worker tried to help the boy see himself as a likable boy who had good health and ability in

sports and other fields, a sense of humor and a good mind, and the ability to succeed in college and to make friends. His negative qualities, too, were accepted as part of his total personality to be modified if necessary but not worried about. That he had considerable insight into his own behavior was indicated by his saying, "I think everybody has to be stubborn and have some conceit. Wouldn't be able to take care of themselves if they didn't. Guess I give the impression of having too much, though."

The role of the teachers in this case was to reinforce this boy's idea of his more acceptable self. They continued to express their genuine, spontaneous liking for him and took an attitude of positive expectancy that he could, and would, do better. In order to increase his sense of belonging in the group, they provided opportunities for him to contribute to the school through his special ability in music. Recognizing that he had a good mind, they suggested challenging problems from the solution of which he got real satisfaction. More opportunities for engaging in sports and social events made his school life as a whole more enjoyable. All this was done indirectly without making him or other pupils aware that he was being given special consideration or singled out in any way. By helping him to a clearer recognition of his good qualities and creating a slightly more favorable environment for their development, the teachers who had this boy in their classes helped him to reduce his inner conflicts and use his energy to better advantage.

Another kind of conflict, however, is challenging and necessary for achievement and happiness. That is the conflict with environmental obstacles that threaten to prevent the individual's best development. If a student's adjustment has resulted in complacency, it should be disturbed occasionally. Otherwise the individual will lack the incentive to think critically and act effectively. The goal of guidance is not precisely freedom from conflicts. From the standpoint of the student, it is increased ability to deal with conflicts; from the standpoint of the personnel worker, it is assistance to the student in acquiring this ability, and prevention of conflicts that threaten to become overwhelming.

↗ Acquire an "Accentuate the Positive" Outlook ↘

Although teachers naturally direct their attention toward behavior that interferes with school routine and regulations, they would get further by looking for the good in their students. They would learn a great deal by seeking the causes of admirable conduct. Why is this boy so cooperative and responsible? Why is this girl so constructive in her relationships with others? How did they "get this way"? Why did Bill improve so much this year? By analyzing the conditions that produce desirable changes, the teacher could more often recreate the success with other children. From the standpoint of helping the individual student, too, this tendency to "accentuate the positive" is beneficial. Desirable personality trends thrive when they are recognized and valued.

↗ Perceive Individuals and Their Relations ↘

Though background knowledge of mental hygiene is highly important, it is not a substitute for constant sensitivity to individual students in the classroom. The greater the individual differences among a group of students, the greater the need for the teacher's observation of each student.

Take mistakes, for example. Instead of being irritated by a student's mistakes, the teacher may view them as an opportunity to learn more about how the student's mind works. There is a reason for errors. Sometimes a mistake is due to lack of background or to limited experience; sometimes to not having acquired methods of logical thinking; often to an unsophisticated use of the familiar in interpreting the unfamiliar; very frequently to failure to recognize expansion of meaning or shifts of meaning in words.

When a student makes a mistake, the teacher with the personnel point of view takes time to find out why. For example, when a child defined a *museum* as "a place where

fish are kept," the teacher instead of saying, "Wrong," asked, "Where did you get that idea, Helen?" It is fascinating for a teacher to sit beside a student as he thinks aloud about an arithmetic problem. It is enlightening—and often dismaying—to follow up a student's reading of a passage with the general question, "What did the author say?" or with a request to draw a picture illustrating the passage. By techniques such as these misconceptions are brought out into the open—the first step in correcting them.

A still more subtle kind of sensitivity leads a teacher to explore the meaning of an action for a particular child. For example, success and failure in school work may have quite different meanings to different students. To one, success may mean keeping his mother's love or the good will of the teacher. To another, success may mean a surrender of his ideal of himself as a masculine person. To still another, success may mean progress toward becoming his most acceptable self. Obviously the teacher cannot plan most effectively for his students' wholesome growth without knowing what success and failure mean to individuals. It is only with this knowledge that the teacher can offer assistance of the kind the student needs.

In brief, sensitivity to students in the classroom means observing them, as authors like Conrad observe life about them. Accurate perception of what students are doing, how they are doing it, what their actions mean, comes first. Only on the basis of accurate understanding can the teacher meet individual needs through the complex interaction of the classroom.

✓ Be Alert to Openings for Student Guidance ✓

The teacher who knows his students and intelligently tries to understand their behavior is in a position to act wisely in their behalf. Much of this guidance necessarily takes place in the classroom. It is an unostentatious part of teaching.

To simplify this complex interaction, the teacher's oppor-

tunities for guidance while teaching may be grouped under seven kinds of action.

1. Supply the kind of personal relationship that each student especially needs. One individual may need friendliness; another, firmness; still another, the teacher's warm but objective affection. For example, when a boy who had been absent re-entered the classroom, the teacher, instead of mentioning the work he had missed and the make-up tests he must take, said, "Hello, Tommy, glad to see you back." Tommy's face lighted up at this indication of friendliness. In this brief moment, he was drawn back into the group and made to feel welcome.

Relationships may be detrimental as well as beneficial. The teacher is never a neutral influence. A few examples of undesirable attitudes and relationships should be noted here. Being aware of them, teachers may more easily guard against them. Occasionally teachers seem to be jealous of children whose talent is far above their own. The gifted child who thinks more logically and brilliantly than his teacher is sometimes subjected to a smoldering, unconscious resentment that distorts the true evaluation of his work. Sometimes, on the other hand, the gifted child is too much pampered by an admiring teacher. The dull child, likewise, is often handicapped by the attitudes of his teachers, who may either brand him as hopeless or urge him to attempt the impossible.

Teachers' attitudes toward certain acts such as stealing, lying, and sex offenses often make it impossible for them to consider the act from the standpoint of the child's future development. The great teacher has learned to relinquish his prejudices. Too often a temporary, impulsive lapse on the part of a student assumes distorted importance. This was true in the case of a boy who entered high school on a wave of popularity. He was president of his class and well liked by students and teachers. Toward the end of the year he was detected in a serious cheating escapade. His motive seems to have been merely a desire for adventure, for he did not use his knowledge of the carefully guarded examination questions which he obtained. However, the reactions of the

principal and the boy's parents were violent. The boy felt disgraced, and, during his remaining years of high school, never regained his initial prestige. He was not again elected by the students to any office.

The too-earnest helper may also do harm. The teacher who works most effectively with individuals is usually not widely advertised as a "helper." He does his work without display. Often the student is not even conscious of being guided. One of the highest compliments a student can pay a teacher who has been quietly working with him is the remark, "Why, I solved this problem myself." The teacher who is most successful in work with individual students has the ability and disposition to let a boy or girl talk freely about himself, only occasionally asking a significant question or making a comment. If necessary, he may suggest possible solutions to the student's problems, but allows him to choose the best way out of his difficulty. The adviser is "merely the catalyzer in whose presence the advisee is enabled to precipitate his own choice." Guidance is a subtle process of helping the individual to help himself.

The teacher who has experienced emotional deprivations and is dependent for his emotional satisfaction on his contacts with students often turns against students who do not appreciate his "kindness." He takes criticism personally. He misconstrues normal adolescent desire to be independent as personal dislike or antagonism. Such a teacher is an unwholesome influence.

Some personalities unfortunately evoke antagonism. The specific words or acts or manners that "rub people the wrong way" are difficult to analyze, but they antagonize both students and parents. The too-dominant and dogmatic personality also tends to have a detrimental effect. Sometimes he insists that students conform to his preconceived pattern for them. He nags gifted children and attempts to force the reticent child into unsuitable social participation.

2. Meet an individual's need for encouragement, social experiences, self-confidence, or reinforcement of his own self-appraisal by casual comments during the class period. For example, a social studies teacher, in talking about in-

dividual differences, gave recognition to a shy little girl by saying, "If I tried my best, I couldn't make as good a poster as Mary's here." A little later, he remarked, "A few minutes ago Walter made an important point, which we should discuss further." Walter, who rarely experienced success in academic subjects, sat up a little taller and concentrated harder than ever. He had made a point worthy of the consideration of the whole class.

In another class a girl who was called upon to take part in a program said she did not know she was supposed to sing with the others but would do her best. The teacher commented that she thought it was fine of Mary to cooperate. Thus the teacher can build self-confidence and highlight concrete standards of conduct.

The teacher can also do much, in a casual way, toward providing other kinds of experiences that a student needs. For example, a sixth grade child who tended to forget things, to be seldom ready on time, and to be negligent about assuming responsibilities, was asked to prepare a fifteen-minute musical program. The child liked music and, at the appointed time, had three or four numbers prepared. It was clever guidance on the part of the teacher to use the child's keenest interest as a bridge to habits of responsibility.

Another sixth grade boy, an only child, whose home environment had fostered extreme self-interest and disregard for others, was brought into a good relationship with other children through his interest in turtles. When the class was studying marine life, Clarence mentioned having some turtles at home. One of the pupils suggested that he bring some of them to class. The next day Clarence brought his turtles and told, in a fascinating way, how he captured them, where he kept them, what he fed them. Other children expressed a wish to have turtles for pets and Clarence was able to supply them at a cost of five or ten cents. Some of the children went to his home to see how the turtles were housed, and Clarence went to their homes to help them establish the turtles in their new quarters. The children who came to his home showed keen interest in his other pets and his many toys. In the beginning Clarence did not want them to handle his toys, but

gradually his attitude changed, and eventually his home became a gathering place for the children of the neighborhood. His mother profited by this opportunity to observe other children. She gave more attention, then, to correcting the mannerisms that had at first isolated Clarence from other children. This teacher's sensitivity to the individual child's needs and interests and her success in using his interest as a means of naturally increasing his social contacts made all the difference in the world in his school and general social adjustment.

Knowing that David, a junior high school pupil, had a camera and all the equipment for developing and printing pictures, the teacher suggested that he take some pictures of the animals they were to see on their excursion to the museum. He was immediately interested. Later, using some of the enlargements he had made, he gave an excellent report to his group on "Wild Animals of India"—the first report he had ever given that held the attention of the class. Since then, he has maintained a higher standard in all his work. Had not the teacher made use of her knowledge of his special interest and equipment, he might still have been doing mediocre work.

Another teacher recognized that an unkempt thirteen-year-old boy, who felt everyone was against him, needed friends and an opportunity to prove his worth. One day when he was absent she discussed with the class how they could make him a real member of their group. One little girl reported the next day that she had said, "Hello" to him, and, she added, "He has a right sweet smile." When he came back to school the group were friendly and sought his help in making a loom. After he had done a good carpentry job, the teacher said, "We really needed you, Will."

When he went to read a preprimer by himself, another boy joined him and they read it together. The teacher commented, "That's a good book, isn't it?" Will replied, "Yes, but it's a 'baby book.' I ought to read hard books." The teacher said, "It is an *easy* book, but it's a *good* book." Then she told him that everyone likes to read easy books sometimes, and that many people find some books too hard for them.

So he kept on with the easy books until, in a few months, he was reading third grade material. His attitude toward school and toward the class had changed greatly. He came to school clean and smiling. In these simple ways the teacher helped this overage boy to adjust to the group and to believe in himself.

3. Individualize standards, assignments, and methods of instruction. Many examples of guidance through the individualization of instruction could be given. One of the most interesting is the account given by Nicholas Murray Butler of his own high school experience:

There being no chemical laboratory and no physics laboratory in which to make experiments, Mr. Ridenour gave me a copy of the *Manual of Geology* by Professor James D. Dana of Yale, then recently issued and a book which quickly became a classic in its field. He told me to take this book and go out on each Saturday and study the geographic features of the surrounding country. He instructed me where to go and what to look for and what to read. He added, "In this way you will get scientific method and that is what you must have. The facts of science are constantly changing, but if you get its method you will know all that is necessary in your general youthful education." To me, this was a very interesting and a very useful experience.¹

Many teachers of large classes find time for guidance through personal comments on the student's written work. One teacher made the following comments on notebooks of ninth grade students:

Shirley: I should like to see two things: (1) that you read more books, and (2) that you make longer comments on what you do read and see.

Peggy: Your notebook looks very untidy—as if a chicken with inky feet had walked through it. I like your comments on plays.

The most helpful comments are definite, positive, and appealing. Teachers' corrections on themes can help the student to dramatize his relationship with his reader and improve the accuracy of his statements and the art with which

¹ Nicholas Murray Butler, "On Getting a Good Old-Fashioned Education," *Columbia University Quarterly*, 28:74-75, June, 1936.

he expresses them. They are a most important form of guidance in learning.

4. Help the student to make a better response to a situation than he could have made unaided. This kind of help is of the utmost value in teaching him methods of meeting somewhat similar situations in the future. For example, one seventh grade teacher, throughout each period, tried to find out where each pupil's thinking went wrong and aided him in the process of answering the question correctly. In an exercise in identifying certain parts of speech in a sentence, the teacher gave the hesitant pupil help through questions: "To whom does *them* refer?" "What part of speech is it?" Step by step the teacher helped each pupil to think through the problem, saying, "Good" after each correct response. At the end, she made an encouraging remark such as, "When you got straightened out, you knew exactly what to do." In a high school English-social studies class, Henry was helped to think for himself. Time and again he was required to fight for his points and to back up his generalizations with specific examples. This demonstration of how to base one's reasoning on sound facts was valuable to the whole class.

In many daily school activities, the teacher has opportunities to help students find the best way out of a situation that is too difficult for them. He gives them just enough help so that they can handle it themselves.

5. Share with students educational goals and purposes. The light that guides the teacher should illumine the students' path also. Why should not a teacher say to a class at the beginning of a new academic year: "We teachers want every one of you to make the best of himself this year. We want those of you with high scholastic ability not to be content with just 'getting by.' We want those of you who have been working in industry or on farms this summer to prepare yourselves this winter to be more skillful and intelligent in the kind of socially useful work you can do best. We want you to get the scholarships you're working toward and to be able leaders in worthy school enterprises." The teacher may describe the vocational and avocational values of his subject, so that its meaning, use, and purpose become evident.

6. Discuss real problems that are of immediate concern to the students, even though they are unrelated to the subject scheduled. For example, in a senior history class two boys were handling their textbooks carelessly. With such treatment the books would not long be suitable for use. The teacher spoke to the boys about the way they were handling the books and one of them jokingly replied that the city would provide others.

The teacher took the boy's remark as a theme for discussion. The students discussed who made up the "city." The conclusion was that all residents made up the city and that the city's bills were paid by those who lived in the city and paid taxes. With the help of the students the teacher then figured what it cost the city for each student in the high school. Such items as tuition, books, use and upkeep of building, supplies and the like, went into the itemized list. From this discussion the idea was developed that careful handling of materials and wise use of the advantages offered were essential, if the cost of education was not to become needlessly high. They further developed the idea that waste or careless use of material was, in the last analysis, costing their own parents money. The sentiment of the group seemed to be that they owed it to themselves and their parents to make the most of their opportunities. The teacher had the facts ready because she had observed this sort of carelessness on another occasion and was awaiting the opportunity to discuss the problem without making it seem like a planned lesson.

If teachers would take class time for the discussion of personal and school problems, a separate homeroom or "guidance period" for this purpose would not be necessary.

7. Recognize needs that require further study outside the class. It is often impossible for a teacher to take time in class to talk with students whose need for adjustment he has recognized in class. In these cases he may find time after class, during a free period, or before or after school. A few examples will show some of the ways in which teachers have followed up their classroom observation to advantage:

Lillian was crudely and cruelly labeled by most of her teachers as "generally no good," "lazy," "flighty." One teacher, however,

looked at her through more hopeful eyes. She noted that Lillian was pretty, tastefully dressed, well mannered, far from unintelligent. She saw in the girl the makings of a charming and useful woman. During a class discussions, the teacher got the impression that Lillian was very fond of children. Conversation confirmed this impression. Lillian expressed an interest in settlement work, and it happened that this teacher was able to obtain a summer position for her in one of the large settlement houses. She liked the work, and the settlement workers liked her. Here were some fine people who thought she was a good deal better than "no good." She was rehabilitated in her own regard through the efforts of a classroom teacher.

John, aged fourteen, a freshman in the technical course, ended his first term with a record of failure in every subject except music. He was puny, pallid, undernourished, underdeveloped, and of limited intelligence. The most casual observer could see that he needed less academic pressure and more physical care. His teacher was able to make a contact with some friendly people on a farm who agreed to board him in return for the light chores he could do. He was released from school before the end of the term and had a long summer in the country. In September he made a fresh start in school with marked improvement. A second summer in the country really put him on his feet, and he began to make an acceptable academic record.

Helen, a girl of fifteen, above average in intelligence, was a model student in the classroom, and far above the rest of the class in most subjects. All the teachers were pleased with her achievement. However, she was unsocial; she ignored her schoolmates and went home immediately after school. Gradually small adjustments were made that resulted in her better social and emotional development:

a. Her favorite teacher talked with her about her reasons for not joining in any school activities or becoming friendly with her classmates.

b. After obtaining information about her attitude toward her classmates, her home relations, and her developmental history, this teacher presented Helen's case at the regular monthly meeting of the high school staff. All her teachers participated in this case conference. It was agreed that she needed more group experience, remedial exercises in posture, and assistance in science and mathematics.

c. Like all new pupils, she was asked to have a general medical examination by her family physician, who would send the report to the school. He said that moderate physical exercise would be beneficial.

d. From a composition she wrote in English class on "Some Games I Have Enjoyed," the teacher learned that Helen liked volleyball and swimming. A volleyball game was scheduled in which teachers and upperclassmen were to play. Helen was persuaded to join the pupils' team. Other volleyball games were held, and her classmates discovered that Helen was good fun.

e. The teacher suggested to the mother that she let Helen choose her own clothes. Her own choices would be more attractive, as well as in line with the styles the other girls wore.

f. Helen was encouraged to invite members of her class to her home and show them her curios from the Far East.

g. A boy classmate offered to teach her to skate.

h. She was elected to a minor office on the school paper.

i. At the teacher's suggestion, the church asked her to play the piano in the Beginners' Department and teach a class of small children.

j. She attended a church summer camp.

k. In the fall she returned to school happier and quite determined to take part in the activities of the school and to make her own decisions, even though they were opposed by her mother.

Helen graduated from high school and went to a university, where she made a satisfactory social and academic adjustment.

Note the steps taken in this case: checking on her physical condition; gaining understanding of her interests and abilities; locating the strains and pressures in her family relations; developing her social skills; and helping her to gain independence from her mother's domination without a sense of guilt. Procedures such as these should be part of the developmental guidance program for all students, rather than delayed treatment for cases in which problems of social adjustment have already developed.

✓ Discipline Viewed as Guidance by Teachers ✓

These principles of guidance in the classroom may be highlighted by applying them to problems of discipline. Although

the word *discipline* appears to be vanishing from the pages of books on guidance, teachers are still bothered by rudeness, inattention, defiance, lying, stealing, and similar behavior in their classes. Many teachers are still worn out at the end of each day by unruly students.

A comparison of classrooms today with classrooms a hundred years ago, however, gives cause for optimism. Horace Mann described a school in Boston about 1840 where the motto was "Fear, Force, Pain." In that school 328 separate floggings were reported in one week. Certainly no one today would prefer teaching in that system to struggling on with his still imperfect applications of mental hygiene principles.

Good Discipline in Two Schools. Several modern schools expressly for boys who have shown delinquent trends have demonstrated that cases of apparently uncontrollable behavior can be made over. To know that entire classes of difficult youngsters can be turned into useful young citizens is an inspiration to any teacher who has unruly boys and girls in his classes. The Montefiore School in Chicago enrolls only cases of truancy, misbehavior, or serious delinquency—about 600 boys ranging in age from 10 to 17, with a median IQ of 80 to 90. They attend the school for six and one-half hours daily, five days a week, twelve months in the year.

A thorough study is made of each boy when he enters the school. He is given complete physical and psychological examinations, achievement and special diagnostic tests. After the boy has expressed his own point of view in an interview, he is placed in the group which seems to be most appropriate for him. If he later seems to be better suited to another group, he is readily transferred. Academic work fills approximately three-eighths of his school time, laboratory and shop work four-eighths, and recreation one-eighth. The school has varied and extensive shop and laboratory equipment, including facilities for music, dramatics, and art.² On its

² It is significant that, in a Russian school for delinquent boys, everything went well as long as they had constructive work to do. When it became impossible to get the necessary materials, they reverted to their former destructive behavior.

staff are a dentist, a doctor, and a nurse, who are employed full time, and a psychiatrist employed half time. The teachers have excellent professional training and experience.

As about 25 per cent of the boys entering Montefiore School have reading disabilities, special instruction in reading is given. In one month they generally make three months' progress. Having discovered that they can read, they begin to take more interest in their other subjects. As their satisfactions increase, their truancy decreases. The staff has raised attendance to 90 per cent, largely by making the school a place where pupils can succeed. Over 80 per cent of the boys make good when they return to regular school.

The school and the Guidance Clinic work closely together. The special workers make a thorough study of each boy; the rest of the staff does what that study shows to be desirable and necessary.

Similar principles are applied in Public School 37, New York. The enrollment consists of boys who have been truants, led destructive gangs, fought with other children, assaulted teachers, kept classrooms in an uproar. At least half have had court experience. Their school achievement ranges from 5A to 8B. Many nationalities and races are represented.

The guidance procedure with a new pupil is as follows: He is interviewed by a psychiatrist and by a psychologist and given any tests that promise to be helpful in understanding him. A home visitor calls on his family. At a case conference attended by the teachers and principal, as well as by the guidance specialists, the causes of the boy's difficulties are discussed, his abilities and limitations are recognized, and a suitable program is planned.

The day's program features a forty-five-minute "adjustment period" when the teacher is free to talk with boys individually. The curriculum includes study of the American home and of how the United States grew. Woodworking and printing shops prepare boys for more advanced work at vocational high school. The principal teaches a class on "Social Character, and Vocational Guidance" in which pupils learn how to make themselves more eligible for the kinds of jobs they want. There are practical courses in nutrition for pupils

and parents that lead to improved meals at home. A speech teacher helps pupils with speech defects to overcome this handicap. In assembly periods pupils are inspired by able speakers and given a chance to express their own opinions in a town-meeting type of session once a week. In innumerable ways they are given responsibilities for the school: taking charge of the mid-morning milk, running magic lanterns and moving-picture machines, keeping the school clean. When asked about his good record, one boy said, "Well, I never was in a school before that needed me."

The spirit of the school, of course, is another important influence on each new pupil. To his surprise, he finds the pupils interested and courteous. If he "starts anything," it does not make the impression he expects. The others good-naturedly tell him to "cut out the kid stuff." Gradually he learns to remain steady and competent even under stress.

The principal attributes the successful rehabilitation of about 90 per cent of these boys to "wisely applied psychology, seasoned with tact and warm human sympathy." She says that the changes in her boys depend on "treating them like people entitled to respect; making them feel well liked and wanted; finding something at which they can be successful; and discovering some way in which they can serve others."³ This is the essence of sound guidance procedure.

Good Discipline in Individual Cases. The same principles work in individual cases. Innumerable teachers have proved for themselves the effectiveness of understanding each individual, of providing him with suitable work, and of showing genuine respect and affection for him. The following accounts illustrate these principles translated into sound methods of discipline at camp, in school, and at home.

Anne appeared to the camp as a "problem girl." It was her second season there, and she returned without having acquired the camp spirit and with considerable prestige among some of the girls. At this camp there were no rules except those needed for safety, but Anne did not appreciate being treated as a respon-

³ Elsie McCormick, "They Can Be Made Over," *Survey Graphic*, 34:127-129, April, 1945.

sible person in the community, and boasted that she was going to "put it over" the counselors this year. The counselor was given this information before Anne arrived, and her first step was to become acquainted with the girl and to try to direct her energies and ingenuity into constructive camp activities. The first day Anne was elected chairman of an interest group. This demanded time and energy. Later, elected to membership on the council, she became aware of the ideals of the camp. The council chose Anne as chairman of the last meeting in which these ideals were interpreted to the group. The counselor gave help at strategic points, saw that needed references were available, assisted her in acquiring the technics of committee work, and spent an hour the last day in helping her to formulate her ideas. At the end of the last meeting an elderly man introduced himself to the counselor as Anne's father. He had driven down to the camp to take her home. He was surprised and delighted at his daughter's poise, her ability to express herself, and the point of view that she had presented. He felt that the days at camp had been of inestimable value to her. They had been, indeed. All her boasted escapades had been forgotten; she had thrown her whole self into worth-while projects.

The second example is the case of a boy who entered the third grade of a new school as a "behavior problem."

Jackie was easily overstimulated and poorly adjusted to group work. His IQ was about 120, and he was already doing superior work in fourth grade arithmetic. He was, however, below average in reading and writing. No physical difficulties were evident from the medical examination. When Jackie was still a baby, his father and mother had been divorced. Since then he had lived with his mother, brother, and sister. Although the mother was well-to-do, she gave the impression of being burdened by the care of her three children. Jackie had never seen his father and had had practically no contacts with men. In school his behavior was so upsetting that the teacher thought it necessary to isolate him from the group.

At this stage of almost complete rejection at home and at school Jackie came into contact with his science and playground teacher, to whom he took a liking. Although there was no organized guidance program in the school, this teacher, Mr. N—— took on Jackie as his counselee. The boy seemed to sense that Mr. N—— was "all for Jackie," even though he disapproved of

some of his behavior. It seemed to Mr. N—— that Jackie was behaving as he did in his classes because he was disliked by his classmates, never received anyone's approval or recognition, and felt alone and insecure.

With the cooperation of the other teachers, Mr. N—— began to try to meet these needs. An entering wedge was driven when Jackie, after studying the steam engine in Mr. N——'s laboratory, made a report on it in the social studies class. The report was so good that someone suggested he submit it to the school paper. It was accepted and published. After this first experience of success, Jackie wrote other articles, some of which were accepted by the school news. He spent more and more time in the activities of his group and took part in class discussions. There were ups and downs, but growth in interest, achievement, and social relations was evident. It is not likely that this progress would have been made had not Mr. N——, at the psychological moment, become Jackie's teacher-counselor.

The father in *How Green Was My Valley* showed a similar understanding and sympathy. The little boy, Huw, had stolen out of the house to attend the secret meeting his brother was leading on the mountain. He climbed back into his room, dirty and half frozen, and was confronted by his father.

"Where have you been?" he asked again, and shaded his eyes with his hand. He was still dressed, and sitting on my bed.

"Up the mountain, Dada," I said, though it is a mystery to me to this day how I got it out.

"Did I tell you about minding your own business?" he said.

"Yes, Dada," I said.

"Do you expect your mother to clean that mess you are in?" he asked me.

"No, Dada," I said.

"Go downstairs and clean yourself and be sharp about it," he said.

Off I went like a black-beetle, dripping all over the floor, expecting a clout that would stretch me senseless. But nothing happened. . . .

It is strange how you will do a job with more than ordinary care when you have a fault upon your conscience. It is almost as though you thought to make your industry a form of penitence.

"Come here, Huw," my father said at last.

I put down the cloth and stood in front of him, hanging my head.

"Why did you go up the mountain when I told you not?" my father asked, and to my surprise his voice was quite ordinary, and not angry a bit.

"I wanted to help Davy, Dada," I said.

"Help Davy?" my father said. "And how about your poor Mama? What would have happened to her if you had come to harm? Did you stop to think?"

"No, Dada," I said.

My father lifted me into bed and put the clothes over me, and patted me on the head.

"You will be a man soon, my son," he said, "and you will find all the troubles you are wanting in plenty. Plenty, indeed. I am afraid you will have it more than us, now. So till then, be a good boy and think of your Mama. She is the one to help. Good night, my son. God watch over you."

"Good night, Dada," I said.

I was so glad he had gone before Gwilyn came in through the window. I fell off to sleep at once then.

But thinking back now, I hear my father's voice as he spoke then, so sad and soft, as though he had known and seen.⁴

The father handled this problem of discipline with sympathetic understanding of the motives underlying the little boy's action and with his future conduct in mind. Usually stern, he nevertheless acted as a humane person should, taking the whole situation into consideration. He gave the child a chance to repair the trouble he had made, respected the child's motive, and suggested two things—acting on thinking, and considerateness for his mother—that would help most to direct his behavior in the future. Most important of all, he showed the child that he loved him, even though he disapproved his behavior.

Any teacher may learn to deal with disciplinary problems in the guidance way. It helps him to know how other teachers have treated students in groups and individually; therefore these detailed descriptions have been given. And although personnel work is an art, it can be improved by a more thorough understanding of all that is involved in the process.

⁴ Richard Llewellyn, *How Green Was My Valley*, New York, 1940, pp. 33-34. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Influence of the Teacher's Personality. The teacher's personality is very much involved in good discipline. If he has a need to dominate others, if his feelings of personal inadequacy are too strong, or if he is afraid that if he gives his students an inch they will take a mile, his discipline is affected. He cannot meet his students' needs for success, security, and warmth of feeling. Students are quick to sense insecurity in the teacher and the lack of authority that comes from a feeling of inability to cope with the situation. Frederick H. Allen is right when he states that "classroom discipline is very closely related to the quality of maturity of the teacher." A teacher who has real respect for himself and for his work is the most important element in good discipline. A sense of humor, too, goes a long way. One teacher, when asked what she did to have industry, contentment, and considerateness for others in her class, said, "Nothing, I guess, except to laugh with them more than usual."

The teacher's attitude toward his students, as well as his own personal adjustment, influences his methods of discipline. It is not necessary for him to go to either of two extremes—"to make the little devils do as he tells them or to let the little angels do just as they please." The teacher's attitude should be that of respecting the individuality of each member of his class and expecting the best of them. When asked to list the gifted children in her class, one rural teacher said, "All my children are gifted." She had the habit of looking for exceptional qualities in each child. Even while the teacher respects the individuality of each student, he also relates that individuality to the needs of the group. Otherwise there would not be the group experience each needs.

The Meaning of Discipline. For different persons, discipline has different meanings. To some it means meting out punishment for certain offenses; to others, it means achieving self-direction and self-control. Other views of discipline lie between these two extremes. The following concepts seem to be essential in the modern view of discipline:

1. Discipline is a natural and necessary feature of civilized life.

2. Its aim is self-control and self-direction toward worthy goals.

3. It focuses attention on the future, and on the past only as it helps one to understand the present and the future; it recognizes that all conduct is relative to the past experience and the future good of the individual and of society.

4. It results in the reorientation of the individual and the redirecting of his energy into constructive channels—useful work, good relationships with others, service, wholesome recreation. Thus the best development of the individual in relation to the groups of which he is a member is furthered by guided realization of his potentialities.

5. It is personal; it seeks the causes of undesirable behavior and takes into account the varied factors that have given rise to it. The modern view recognizes that detrimental behavior is an outgrowth of unfavorable conditions, as surely as good development results from conditions that bring out the best in a person.

Children and young people are not very different from adults. They do not like to be criticized negatively, ridiculed, nagged, "pushed around," any more than adults do. They want to be given the benefit of the doubt. A librarian learned that a boy had stolen a book from the library. When he came back with the book, she said, "The library is here for you to use. But there's a right way and a wrong way of using it. The right way is to get a library card and take books out on it." She then showed him how he could make out an application card and get it properly signed, so that the card would be ready when he wanted it.

Whenever discipline and delinquency are discussed, there are some persons who blame the children and young people; some who condemn education; some who say it is the parents' fault; and others who speak of a delinquent society. All four factors are involved. The normal individual must take a large share of the responsibility for his life; the home and the school must teach him a better way of life than he would have evolved without help; society must provide conditions that make the good way of life possible. Delinquent behavior may be explained from the psychoanalytic point of view as

the result of psychological conflict. It may be attributed, as Aichhorn suggests, to failure on the part of the family or the school to help children build adequate ego-ideals.

No one cause, however, has been found to be the determinant in all cases. Different factors are most significant in different situations. As Stephen Leacock suggests, even corporal punishment, when it is taken for granted by students, does not do the psychological harm that it does when it is generally looked upon as a degradation.

In recent years, the influence of ideas on conduct has been minimized. Yet deliberation, "acting on thinking," the control of action by the higher brain centers, certainly must affect action. Healy and Bronner concluded from their study of siblings, one delinquent and one non-delinquent, that "while we discover emotional disturbances to be such a great incentive to delinquent behavior, yet the part that the ideal life plays cannot be neglected."⁵

The school is in a strategic position to prevent delinquency. The juvenile delinquents flow from the school and in some cases return to it. Reform is expensive and ineffectual as compared with education. According to Healy and Bronner, we know enough about the causes of delinquency, complex as it is, to do good preventive work.

Procedures That Have Worked. Finally, the teacher will be helped by knowing which procedures have actually worked best. He can see how the large majority of discipline problems may be treated by guidance rather than by administrative technics. If his conviction about these "newer ways" of dealing with problems of behavior is thus strengthened, he will be more likely to persist in his application of sound mental hygiene principles, even though success is not immediately evident. Although each student, of course, should be treated in accord with his individual needs, the following procedures have repeatedly brought good results in personal development and social adjustment:

1. Establish a good relationship; make the student feel

⁵ William Healy and Augusta Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment*, p. 135. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut, 1936.

that the teacher is "for him, not against him." If this relation of mutual respect and confidence is maintained, even socially necessary punishment may be administered without arousing fear or antagonism.

2. Study the individual in his home, school, and neighborhood setting: his previous trends in behavior, the meaning that his acts have for him, his home background, the relation of his ability to his achievement and the appropriateness of his school program, his special interests and wishes, his goals and purposes, his companions, his relation with teachers, the immediate conditions that gave rise to the present problem, and other relevant factors. One of the main purposes of this study is to call attention to his assets and to find the causes of his undesirable behavior. In this study the student shares. In fact, he makes the chief contribution to it by thinking aloud in the presence of an understanding adult.

3. Reward genuine improvement with discriminating approval of the particular kind that is important to the individual. Force, sarcasm, fear, and punishment have been shown by experiment and experience to be practically worthless as incentives to learning. Punishment may make a child resentful, sullen, aggressive, unresponsive, apathetic. Many children admit that their bad behavior was a way of "getting even" with the parent who punished them. Case studies have shown that punishment is ineffective, or even dangerous, when it involves social isolation from a desirable group; when it is inconsistent, weak at first and later severe, or strong at first and then weakly abandoned; when it seems unreasonable or unjust to the individual; when it is dissociated from the behavior to be changed; when it is not administered by one whose authority is respected.

4. Play the part of a "builder-upper," not a "tearer-downer." In other words, increase the student's faith in his ability to "make good." This attitude is the antithesis of the common scolding and "talking to" employed by many teachers and administrators. The latter procedure strengthens the individual's idea of himself as "bad," or "lacking in self-control," or "hopeless," or "dumb," or "incorrigible." It is well known that a child tends to accept adults' evaluation of him

and to live up—or down—to it, whichever the case may be. This is true of groups as well as of individuals. One teacher attributes the success of her classes to the fact that she lets a new group know about the fine reputation the previous class had. She tells the class that is leaving how well the principal and other teachers think of them, and finds that they try to live up to these expectations.

5. Help the student to work out a plan by means of which he can satisfy his needs in approved ways. This plan usually involves handling certain relationships with others—parents, brothers and sisters, teachers, or classmates—that he has come to understand better. Keep in mind the probable future effect of this plan. It should not be complicated, but capable of achievement in easy steps.

6. Reinforce the student's new insights and his plan for improvement by controlling conditions that may lead to failure. For example, talk with other students and teachers, and with parents as opportunity offers, so that they will play a constructive part in the plan. Often it is necessary to change the group's point of view toward discipline and help them to find satisfaction in the success and happiness of others.

Students are best disciplined by responsibility—by absorbing interests, by challenging tasks. Discipline, that is, self-discipline, is not to be regarded as antithetical to purpose on the part of the student; it is a most important means of attaining one's purpose. Truancy is not always "a bad boy running away from a good school, but is often a good boy running away from a bad school." By providing suitable work and play, and opportunities for service, a school may avoid many problems of discipline, as did the two schools described on pages 132–134. Under these conditions the individual has no need to resort to unsocial behavior as a compensation for lack of legitimate success. When teachers and students become co-workers in achieving common goals, rebellion and aggressive behavior seem out of place. The school seems good to them because they help to run it.

The role of the teacher in problems of behavior is to help all his students achieve the best possible behavior for them. In some situations a rough-and-ready treatment of miscon-

duct is accepted as appropriate. Children of all ages recognize the need for limits, for control, and even for severity at times. The important thing is that the teacher realize that some students should be treated with special care. Criticism that would be stimulating to a well-adjusted person reduces the social security and self-confidence that an oversensitive student especially needs.

The teacher must also realize that students have within themselves resources far exceeding any that he could bring from the outside. They must learn to help themselves become their best selves. The method of treatment properly varies not only with each individual, but also with the same individual under different circumstances.

Obviously the kind of discipline here described requires more thought, more time, more tact, more psychological background, more skill on the part of the teacher, than control by fiat and fear. But from the standpoint of individual development, it is worth all the effort. If, under crowded classroom conditions and other stress and strain, the teacher is unable to make progress with certain individuals, he may refer them to the dean, the counselor, or another personnel worker in the school. If a complex family difficulty is uncovered, the school personnel worker may seek the assistance of the visiting teacher, if one is employed in the school system. The visiting teacher, in turn, may refer the case to another agency that can give the specialized welfare, medical, or psychiatric service needed. Thus, beginning with the teacher and his all-important preventive work, all the resources of the school and community are brought to the assistance of the child or adolescent who needs "discipline."

Teachers need to have faith that these procedures work. They need conviction that, in the long run and from the standpoint of personal development, love is more potent than hate or indifference, discerning praise is more efficacious than punishment, and knowledge of the individual and the causes of his behavior is better than ignorance. Without this faith and conviction, teachers are likely to become discouraged at the ups and downs of human behavior that exist even in the best-regulated classrooms.

✓ Guidance Openings in Subject Fields ✓

In addition to the occasions for guidance that are offered to every teacher, there are special opportunities in each subject. Through answers to questions, through informal essays and autobiographies, and through group discussion, a teacher's understanding of individual students is deepened. This understanding enables him to make the personal comments and individual adjustments already described in this chapter. Moreover, the content of each subject has its unique guidance value. Some of the opportunities for guidance in different subjects will now be illustrated.

In English. Through literature that is true to life students can learn to understand themselves and other people. Literature "holds a mirror up to nature." It furnishes vicarious experience that helps a student to sense how persons feel when they act in certain ways; it uncovers motives; it helps adolescents to understand family relationships. *The Human Comedy*, for example, is rich in interpretations of people, their daily lives, their struggles, their relations to one another, their spiritual qualities. From four-year-old Ulysses to seventy-year-old Mr. Grogan, a panorama of contemporary life is presented. Saroyan brings a kind of reassurance, somewhat sentimental perhaps, to disturbed adolescents restless to know what life means in these days. Technics of living, as well as a philosophy of life, are presented. Mrs. MacCauley's answers to Ulysses' questions about his father and Marcus, and her handling of the breakfast-table situation between Homer and Bess are only two of many pointers to good family living. *My Friend Flicka* combines the spaciousness of the out-of-doors with the story of how a boy overcame his inadequacy when he was given something to love and be responsible for. To prospective parents, the story suggests that love and understanding of children help them to grow up well. Both of these books have been admirably translated into motion pictures, which carry their message still more

forcefully to the much wider audience of those who cannot or do not read books.

English enriches living as well as deepening understanding of social relations. Reading may be an inexhaustible source of personal satisfaction. The development in English classes of reading interests that will carry over into adult life is most effective guidance in the wise use of leisure. In this connection, it becomes evident that no teacher can afford to be ignorant of or snobbish about his students' recreational tastes. He should accept his students where they are, use constructively the foundations they have acquired, and build steadily and reasonably at a pace not too rapid for them.

Literature also furnishes an objective means of considering problems common to youth. Group discussions in an English class are provocative. Comments by classmates are often more effective than the teacher's remarks in clarifying a question. Here are only a few out of a wealth of examples: In discussing Octavius Roy Cohen's *The Dark Hour* as an example of a rather meretricious style, a boy who had had much personal trouble challenged the statement, "She experienced ecstatic joy which was, however, modified by the shadow of her past sorrow." He said that when tragedy comes into your life you can never be happy again. This was controverted again and again by his classmates, who gave numerous examples in real life and in literature of the fallacy of such a generalization. They refuted his arguments far more convincingly than the teacher could have done.

In a story by Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings the leading character was a boy in an orphanage. Some child in the class callously remarked that the boy was really very happy there, and that his desire to belong to someone was childish. A girl who had been in an orphanage and now was in a re-established home contradicted this statement vehemently, and the class gave many examples of everyone's need for affection and the feeling of belonging to someone. They agreed that this need, though often unrecognized, was frequently the cause of annoying behavior.

Oral reading, reports, and discussion also have the value of increasing the student's ability to communicate his

thoughts to others. The ability to take part in a friendly conversation, to contribute to a discussion, to stand up and speak before a group is an important factor in many an individual's social and civic adjustment.

Through compositions the English teacher can gain insight into students' interests, goals, and values. If their writings are to have this value, students' interest and cooperation must, of course, be obtained. If the teacher indulges in this kind of assignment too often, his class may feel as one youngster did when she exclaimed, "Miss A——, if I have to write one word more about adolescence, I'll scream."

In response to the suggestion that students write about themselves and their age group, some teachers have obtained significant insights into the way students are thinking and feeling, as in the following quotations:

A person judges himself by the way that other people treat him. If nothing much is expected of him, he gives nothing much. We are all naturally lazy, especially while we are trying our wings.

A big factor in why we place such a low value upon ourselves is that all of us haven't someone to keep encouraging us and keep us going forward when we come to difficult problems. I feel every young person needs someone he admires and respects to help him become self-confident and help him respect himself as well as others. We are constantly being told we must prepare ourselves to take over the world when we get older. We are told that we won't be prepared if we don't work hard. Most of us know all that and because people are forever harping on the fact, they make us feel we haven't the ability to prepare ourselves.

When the parents are at home, they are continually finding fault with the children who begin to feel that they are not loved or wanted.

Most adults think of teen-age boys and girls as "children" and treat them as such. Instead, they should have adult responsibilities, that is, responsibilities that are taken for granted and for which they don't get any praise, as children do. Naturally it's a hard age to manage, but too many parents relax and feel that their job is done after children pass the very dependent stage. On the contrary, a parent's job is almost never over.

My family situation is, to use the vernacular, a "mess." Since I have two fathers and one mother, I ought to feel blessed, perhaps. It's a queer thing. I think I'd just rather have one mother.

I've been in seventeen schools in seventeen years, and am living at the present time with my mother and stepfather, while my brother is with my father and stepmother. This may seem quite complicated, but it is only the beginning of many entanglements. The love and care of my two grandparents has made me happy.

Because I am handicapped by poor vision, the doctors say that I can never go to college. This was a great blow to me.

When I was eleven years old, a great tragedy occurred. My father died, and nothing seemed to be right any more. Our friends don't come to visit us as they used to. My mother and I lead a quiet life and I am very lonely.

I guess I'm just an escapist at heart. That's why I enjoy reading as much as I do. Thank God for books! That's all I have to say. I lead such a common, unromantic life without them.

My family has been somewhat broken up. The divorce courts took my father away, the Navy took my brother, so all I have left is my Mom. We live alone and like it.

In October I met Dick for the first time. After that things went pretty smoothly with me in the other girls' eyes because at last I had a man. Silly, but it's the way most girls judge another girl.

Reading essays that contain comments of this kind is one of the quickest ways of getting acquainted with individual students. While he is performing his duties as a teacher of composition, the teacher is simultaneously acquiring a background for the guidance of each member of his class. Needless to say, he must hold these confidences inviolate.

Students' comments on books they have read are also instructive. Of course, the teacher cannot always tell, even though a student obviously believes what he has written, just how a book has really affected him. Some discount must be made for sheer verbalization and for the influence of comments he has heard or read. However, expressions of attitudes such as the following are surely significant:

The actions of my family when the boy friends drops in just burns me up, but from *Kitty Foyle* I've learned just to grin and

bear it. It's best just to keep calm at the time and tell the family what you think later.

Although Scarlett O'Hara was a girl, I found I had some of her faults: impatience, a bad temper, and procrastination. [Boy]

The Years Are So Long left me wondering whether children after their marriage should support their parents. I finally concluded that they should, no matter what the sacrifice. This is one of my problems now.

The Old Maid shows a child hurting her mother. I could see myself dropping innocent remarks to my mother that cut underneath. Now I understand better what mothers have to endure from inconsiderate children.

Before I read *Mrs. Miniver*, I felt that I had the queerest reactions to things and that no one could possibly feel the same as I do.

Poems for Modern Youth made me think about the world as a sort of perpetual miracle and led me to become more interested in people and everyday life.

On Borrowed Time showed that death can be nice and gentle. Before this I thought it was the worst thing that could happen to a person.

Often I think about many things that nobody seems to like to discuss or even think about. So I keep them to myself and think about them when I'm alone. But several times in books I have found the author describing the feelings and thoughts of characters, which are similar to my own, and they become real people to me. In this way it almost seems as though I had talked over my troubles with someone and were relieved of them. This is why I enjoy reading so much.

Comments such as these can scarcely fail to deepen the teacher's understanding of the students in his classes.

In English classes a student sometimes reveals an unusual ability in the language arts that suggests vocational possibilities. In these cases, the teacher should guard against jumping to the conclusion that the student should enter the field of journalism. Consideration must be given to many factors other than ability (granted that the ability has been established as potentially professional).

However, it is the role of the English teacher to provide opportunities for the development of recognized special abilities, as the following example shows.

In a small high school that had no specialist in personnel work, the English teacher noticed that Phyllis had exceptional ability in writing. First he became better acquainted with her. From the school records and conversations, he learned that her score on the group intelligence test was very high; that her vocabulary was amazing; that, because of a broken home, she was living with a married sister; that she had no vocational plans and that she did not intend to go to college. The English teacher encouraged her to write. When a vacancy occurred on the school paper, Phyllis was chosen. In class she chose the more difficult assignments, with which the teacher gave her special help. When she asked about the field of writing, the teacher obtained from the librarian several recent pamphlets on this subject.⁶ They also looked up colleges offering courses in journalism.⁷

When her choice of college had been narrowed to a small college that had an especially good standing in the communication arts, where she would be likely to make a good social adjustment, the question of finances arose. The English teacher was able to influence a local college club to award her a scholarship, which would give her time to adjust to college before attempting to carry on part-time remunerative work. In the fall she entered this college. The letters she has written during the first two years indicate that she has made many friends and is developing admirably socially and intellectually. She likes everything about college. She has become active in the literary work of the school publications and believes that her "future is in journalism."

In these simple ways, the English teacher helped this girl to get a sense of direction and make progress that she herself had not realized was possible.

Certain subjects, notably English and civics, have been used in imparting knowledge of occupations. For example,

⁶ Institute of Research, *Journalism as a Career*. Institute of Research, Chicago, 1931.

Lorine Pruette, *Working with Words: A Survey of Vocational Opportunities for Young Writers*. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York, 1940.

⁷ Gladys B. Longley, "Certain Educational Guidance Questions Answered," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 9:116-133, March, 1946.

one teacher of oral English made vocational choice the theme of several periods. The students first listed all the occupations with which they were familiar. Each student next made a study of one occupation in which he was interested. Then he read books or pamphlets about that occupation and also obtained information from an interview or a letter from someone engaged in it. The reports included a brief history of the vocation, a description of the kind of work it involved, an analysis of its advantages and disadvantages, an account of the training and other qualifications required, its compensation, and its services to society.

Using the material and methods of his subject, the English teacher with the personnel point of view will fuse guidance and instruction. The two processes of "learning" his students and meeting their needs go on continuously in his classes. He frequently follows up a clue outside of class, getting help from other sources if necessary.

In the Social Studies. Like the English teacher, the social studies teacher has many opportunities for guidance. Although his chances to observe students and to help them to develop critical thinking and appreciation of others' points of view are perhaps no more numerous than those of other teachers, he can more frequently help them to relate themselves to the life of the local community and to that of the nation and of the world.

Many of the ideas gained in social studies classes are basic to understanding and making a good adjustment to the world of today and tomorrow. Through the study of history the student can see how motives like his own have led to events in the past; he becomes aware of the intermittent progress man has made. The social studies increase his appreciation of other nations and peoples and reinforce his devotion to the as yet unattained ideals of democracy toward which we are striving. Through current radio broadcasts, newsreels, newspapers and magazines, general problems of democratic living become localized and immediate.

The students' own experiences should be brought into the social studies classroom. When students, through their first

part-time work experiences, are feeling the impact of the world of work, teachers of English, social studies, or other subjects might well spend class time in helping them to interpret these experiences. For example, Mabel M. Riedinger⁸ obtained thought-provoking comments by asking her pupils to discuss and write about their work experiences.

In discussions of the proposition, "Every high school student should have some commercial or factory work experience during his high school course, somewhat under school supervision," students said:

Some work is all right, but a full shift in the factory sure ruins a person's health. . . . You can certainly overdo it. When you work long you get too tired to do your school work. They should limit the number of hours a pupil works.

The school should cooperate more with the students. The kids don't want to flick school, but if they go to school at 7:30 and have a meeting or something and don't get out until 1:30 and have to be at work at 2:00, they don't have any time at all to do other things.

In describing their summer experiences, the students gave a realistic picture of their gains and losses. The values for an individual depended on his health, ability, and other factors. The following was written by a senior boy:

I spent the summer working at the H—— Company. I worked forty-five hours a week six or seven days a week. I managed one of the stockrooms. I had two boys working for me. I like to work when I feel good, but when I'm tired or sick, I don't want to even lift a finger. I like my job and I think everyone should work at some time during his or her four years in high school, because it gives you an idea of what it's all about and why you should go to school and learn everything you can so that you don't have to spend the rest of your life performing a job that any moron could do, simply because you don't have enough education. I learned quite a bit about how to get along with people, especially with your employers, which will come in handy later, and a good deal about people in general.

⁸ Mabel M. Riedinger, "Work Experience for High School Students." Unpublished Project Report. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1946.

In autobiographical essays students have also evaluated their work experiences. Two months before graduation, a senior girl wrote:

I am working thirty to thirty-one hours per week on a switch-board giving out credit ratings written in a code, which must be learned to comprehend the job. I'm crazy about the work, though it does little to further any real academic education. . . .

As far as influencing my interest in school is concerned, I must admit that I have not the same interest I had during my freshman and sophomore years. Also, plans for the future I find bothering me more than ever before in my life.

My jobs affect my health to a great degree, especially my previous job. While I was working, going to school, and all in all using up all my stored-up energy, I developed anemia and I am still under the doctor's care. I am in much better condition now. I blame this run-down condition partly on the job and partly on general lack of sense in taking care to get enough sleep.

The job that I hold now has really helped instead of hindered me. I find myself living by a time scale—so much for study; so much for relaxation, that is, reading or knitting; and so much, usually eight hours or more, for sleep at night. This regularity has done me a world of good.

My job very definitely ties me to the community. I have learned more about business concerns, and just what the city is made up of than I ever knew before. I really feel that I have learned much to make me a better citizen. I like the responsibility that is handed me as I go in the office. It surely affects my ability to accept further responsibility as a citizen.

In autobiographical material many students have mentioned their relations with other people and discussed what they have learned from this opportunity to work with adults:

Contacts with older people on the job may be good for the student if they are the right kind of people and may be bad if they are the wrong kind of people.

It's a good thing for students to get in contact with older people, because they learn what older people know and pick up a lot of good things from them.

After his first work experience, a wealthy boy wrote:

And I learned a lot about people; a lot of these uneducated fellows in the factory are fine fellows, good-hearted; I like them lots. I got a big kick out of learning about people because I had never associated with anyone outside my own class before.

These quotations show how easy it is in classes to obtain significant information about students. It is more difficult for teachers to take the next step and use the understanding thus gained in the guidance of individuals. There is some value to the student in writing about himself and his relationships. As in a skillful interview, when he thinks through some aspects of his life, he becomes more aware of his interests, abilities, and relationships. The teacher can help him further through class discussions in which common personal problems are presented in descriptive accounts, or in motion-picture excerpts, and the group think together toward a solution. It is extremely valuable for an adolescent to hear what his peers think and to evaluate each point of view as it is presented. The teacher will find in the student's written work leads to follow up in personal interviews. If facilities are available, he may refer certain pupils for more extensive help.

A still more direct contribution to guidance is made in a unit on occupations, frequently included in the regular social studies course of study. This unit usually includes a broad picture of the different ways in which people earn a living, a study of the occupations most appropriate to the group, a discussion of the interdependence of workers in meeting society's needs, and individual exploration of one's own interests and abilities with reference to occupational fields. Trips to local industries are most educational if the students' attention is focused on the worker, if discussions about what to observe are held beforehand, and if a summary of what they have learned is made afterward.

In Commercial Subjects. The commercial teacher seems to be particularly conscious of his vocational guidance opportunities. Leaders in the field of business education recognize the importance of guidance. Nichols⁹ has stated that any

⁹ Frederick G. Nichols, "Some Observations on Vocational Guidance in Commercial Education." *Guidance in Business Education, Ninth Yearbook*

sound business training must include a "truly functioning program of guidance." Dame, Brinkman, and Weaver¹⁰ have stressed the importance of helping eighth grade pupils to select a suitable program, of lowering the present high mortality rate in shorthand courses, and of securing accurate information about the number of clerical workers, bookkeepers, typists, and other commercial workers that can be absorbed each year. These are the main opportunities for guidance in the commercial curriculum: selection of suitable courses, imparting of vocational information, counseling of individuals, provision of part-time work experience, and placement and follow up in a full-time job.

Since success in carrying the commercial course and in entering and progressing in the field depends on the appropriateness of the initial choice of vocation, it is at this point that the commercial teacher does his most strategic guidance. He is responsible for enrolling in his classes only those students who have the interest and ability to succeed in commercial courses and later in business. He should interview each prospective student to obtain information on his early vocational interests, the kind of work he has done with greatest satisfaction, the subjects that he has mastered and failed, liked and disliked. An inventory like the *Kuder Preference Record* may uncover or confirm interest in the clerical field of work and give clues to other interests. Clerical aptitude tests may likewise give clues to a student's ability to succeed in different kinds of clerical work. The tests recently recommended by the Science Research Associates are listed below:

Cardall-Gilbert Test of Clerical Competence

Science Research Associates

228 S. Wabash Avenue

Chicago, Illinois

of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, pp. 22-32. Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, Philadelphia, 1936.

¹⁰ John Frank Dame, Albert R. Brinkman, and Wilbur E. Weaver, *Prognosis, Guidance, and Placement in Business Education*. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1944.

Detroit Clerical Aptitudes Examination

Public School Publishing Company
Bloomington, Illinois

E.R.C. Stenographic Aptitude Test

Science Research Associates
228 S. Wabash Avenue
Chicago, Illinois

Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers

Psychological Corporation
522 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

N.I.I.P. Clerical Test

Psychological Corporation
522 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Stenographic Aptitude Test

Psychological Corporation
522 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Turse Shorthand Aptitude Test

World Book Company
Yonkers-on-Hudson
New York

As these tests are still in the experimental stage, the results should be compared with students' subsequent achievement in the course and on the job.

When a student enrolls in a business course, he indicates his "job consciousness." During a prevocational period he may try out his aptitudes in one or more of the following initial-contact jobs: stenographer, bookkeeper, general clerk, or salesperson. With the aid of the local business firms and industries, the U. S. Employment Service, youth-serving agencies such as the Y.M.C.A., or social and civic clubs, commercial students can study employment trends in this field, especially in their local community. Such a survey of the community's needs for workers will incidentally disclose part-time openings in typing, filing, general office assistance, and other commercial lines.

More extensive information on occupational opportunities

may be presented during class periods. It has been recommended that an extensive study of business occupations be included in the course of elementary business training, that this occupational information be related to the content of commercial subjects, and that a special course in business occupations be offered as part of the business curriculum.

Selected sources of information about occupations may be displayed on bulletin boards or in a corner of the commercial room or library. A file of information about jobs in this field may be gradually built up by a committee of students working under the direction of the commercial teacher or school counselor. Methods of gathering and presenting occupational information are described in detail in Gertrude Forrester's *Methods of Vocational Guidance*.¹¹

By the time high school students have reached the senior year, most of them know the vocational aspects of their future work. Gaps in their knowledge are filled by teachers who use reports, talks, dramatizations, oral interviews, and motion pictures to supply realistic information about the vocational world the pupils are about to enter.

Commercial teachers also give considerable attention to individual students. For example, one student in a shorthand class became very much interested in shorthand reporting. Knowing this, the teacher brought to class an article by Louis A. Leslie, entitled "Shorthand as a Profession," and another article by Charles Currier Beale, "The Silent Man," which gives information about the shorthand reporter's job: the qualifications, training, opportunities for advancement, remuneration, and so on. The student learned from the daily papers that the court reporters in a current case received \$15 a day. She was able to interview one of them, who gave her more firsthand information. The teacher also passed on to this student the references to court reporting in the magazine *The Gregg Writer*, to which he subscribed.

Many commercial teachers take considerable responsibility for the placement of their students. This has the advantage

¹¹ Gertrude Forrester, *Methods of Vocational Guidance, with Specific Helps for the Teacher of Business Subjects*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1944.

of keeping instructors in close touch with the business world and in calling their attention to deficiencies in their graduates' training which suggest modifications in the content or method of their courses. For example, a teacher whose students were not successful in getting placed, learned that they had lost speed in typing by not having had a course in typing during their last year of school. Since placement is an exacting and time-consuming task, all commercial teachers can hardly be expected to assume this responsibility. However, by cooperating with the U. S. Employment Service or the school's placement bureau, if there is one, they can keep in touch with employment conditions.

The commercial teacher is also concerned with the personal qualities considered necessary for success in business and industry. Employers list as essential the qualities of neatness in work, attention to detail, honesty, industry, perseverance, adaptability, loyalty, and ability to get along with people. These qualities may be developed through commercial courses. According to one estimate 90 per cent of the failures to hold jobs are due to personality and character factors.

In Science and Mathematics. The most common guidance problem in science and mathematics is that of selecting students who can succeed in the courses offered, or of modifying the courses so that those enrolled can experience success. Two high school teachers met this problem in the following manner: During the first marking period they offered approximately the same work in all the divisions of plane geometry that they taught. By the end of the first marking period fifteen to eighteen pupils were failing. They were puzzled and discouraged but had not stopped trying. A large proportion of them were in one class, and it was possible to transfer most of the others who were having difficulty to this section. The teacher who taught this section slowed up at once, prepared simpler, more detailed explanations, and began remedial work with the students having the most serious difficulty. Their discouragement gave way to hope and new confidence. Failure turned into success. All but six

were passing the subject by midyear, all but one by the end of the year. Just good instruction, perhaps. But this procedure exemplified the personnel point of view.

The stability of the universe, as revealed in the content of a science course, may give some students a sense of security; friends may be fickle, but the stars and the seasons are dependable. Mathematics, too, helps to orient students in time and space, to give them a spacious view of the universe, and to dispel superstitions.

Science also helps students develop sound methods of thinking and problem-solving in personal and social areas: health, conservation of natural resources, improved farming and stock-raising, control of communicable diseases. Actually, obvious applications to the daily lives of the students are too often neglected. The members of one biology class showed many evidences of poor posture, malnutrition, and skin defects; yet not once did the teacher relate the subject matter of biology to these personal problems.

The science laboratory is rich in opportunities for counseling and group work. The teacher, in his contacts with individual students, may discover their learning difficulties and show them how to learn more efficiently. Having established a friendly relationship, he is likely to be consulted about other than school matters. Groups of two or more share responsibility for conducting experiments—sometimes long-term experiments such as the study of the effect of diet upon the growth of rats. Thus students learn to work together for a common end.

In Physical Education. Because of the informal nature of its activities, physical education offers many opportunities for constructive teacher-student contacts. In locker rooms, on trips, on the side lines, and in other situations the coach or physical education director can talk intimately with individual students. Likewise in small groups and teams wholesome friendships and good personal relations develop.

Physical education also offers many opportunities for guidance in fair play, social relationship, and leadership. Suggestions or questions that direct a student's attention

toward a better way out of a situation are immediately translated into action. Practice thus follows closely on the heels of an insight or of a good intention. A game of roll ball, an elementary form of baseball, will serve as an illustration of guidance in daily activities. The teacher lined up the two teams of eight- and nine-year-old children and reminded them of the few simple rules. Whenever she felt a child needed encouragement or the group needed to be made aware of certain standards she commended their good play. When an error was made, it was corrected on the spot either by the player who made it or by the ruling of the group. Sometimes the teacher interpreted the reason for a decision: "Yes, George, it was a force out; the ball reached there before you did, and it wasn't necessary to tag you." An error resulted in no embarrassment or feeling of guilt. There was only a feeling of "I'll not do that again," or "I'll do better next time." The teacher set a good example in courtesy and respect for others. When she threw the ball so poorly that the catcher missed it, she said, "I'm sorry John. It was my fault." The teacher knew her pupils and enjoyed them. She missed no opportunity for guidance.

More specialized provisions can be made for individual differences if there is a wide range of activities including rest on a sunny patio or roof, individual corrective exercises, simple games in small groups, sports, team games, and feats of skill and daring. If the teacher knows the physical and social needs of each student, he can provide suitable initial activities and progressive experiences. Play relieves nervous tension. Skill in sports and games aids social adjustment.

In group discussion plans for a balanced life can be made and common health problems can be clarified and superstitions combated. Fatigue, colds, undesirable deviations in weight, absence due to illness, tuberculosis, "nervousness," posture, skin disorders, menstruation, boy-girl relations, excessive work, headaches, choice of physician, self-medication are frequent health problems among adolescents.¹²

Personnel work in physical education also has vocational

¹² Margaret L. Leonard, *Health Counseling for Girls*. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1944.

aspects. The many opportunities in the fields of teaching, physical therapy, and recreation may be described to students who show interest and aptitude for the work.

Health is basic to all other forms of guidance. Efforts to make other adjustments are defeated if health conditions are neglected. Health needs, once recognized, should be followed through until they are fulfilled, even though the solution upsets traditions and vested interests.

In Music and Art. Music and art have avocational, vocational, and therapeutic aspects that can be developed by the teacher with the personnel point of view. The first step is to see that each student enrolls in the music class that best meets his needs. The Seashore tests of pitch, intensity, rhythm, and time, as well as the motor tests, give the teacher some information about a child's musical capacity. In the Rochester, New York, schools music supervisors and teachers cooperated in a program that encouraged a student to participate in the special kind of music for which he was best suited and in which he was most interested, whether voice, piano or another instrument, or ensemble work. Emphasis was placed on the needs of the child.

The teacher should also inform students about vocational opportunities in the field of music. Russel Squire¹³ called attention to the limited vocational opportunities in this field. The 1940 Census showed that 85,000 of the 200,000 musicians in the United States were teachers. It may be that radio will increase the demand for professional musicians. However that may be, the teacher still has the responsibility of "helping the child to discover music for himself, and to discover himself musically."¹⁴

The music teacher has an advantage in being able to observe a student's development over a period of years. Through providing for continuity of enjoyment and experience, he can use music as an important avenue of self-

¹³ Russel Squire, "Music as a Vocation," *Music Educators Journal*, 27:22, October-November, 1940.

¹⁴ James L. Mursell and Mabelle Glenn, *The Psychology of School Music Teaching*, p. 85. Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1938.

realization. Two examples of the guidance of individual students—one in the field of art and one in music—will illustrate methods teachers can use.

An art teacher was at first puzzled and disappointed when a boy in his art appreciation class who had shown more than average ability in creative work said, "I don't think I want to be in this class, Mr. B——."

Mr. B—— asked, "Why don't you like Art II, Doug? Don't you think a well-educated person should know something of art history and modern art?"

Doug said, "Oh yes, I guess it's a good thing, but I want to do things, not look at what someone else has done and just talk about it. Last year was all right when we were painting every day, but I'd like to get out of this."

Mr. B—— had known Doug for two years as a rather unsocial, unpopular boy. He claimed that the principal and several of his teachers "had it in for him." Though he was an excellent athlete, he would not willingly take part in the physical education program. By talking further with him, the art teacher learned more about Doug's interests and ambitions, and together they worked out the following plan: In this large high school, there was a great deal of publicity art work to be done. The principal, the student council, various clubs, and other groups continually had need of posters and other art work, all of which was prepared in the art room by various students. Mr. B—— asked Doug if he would like to take full charge of this work for the year, choosing whatever assistance he needed. Doug readily agreed. He proved to be capable and responsible. He spent much of his free time in the art room.

Soon after he had taken on this new work, there was a noticeable change in his attitude. He gained a sense of belonging and being of worth that he had never experienced before. He became a well-known and popular figure, relied on by the faculty, the student council, and other groups. He also showed improvement in other phases of his school work. He was elected as staff cartoonist on the weekly school paper. At a general assembly in June he was cited for unselfish work for his school. By then he was making inquiries about vocational opportunities in general and in the field of art in particular.

In a teachers college a music teacher became interested in a boy who was specializing in the violin but who, because of in-

fantile paralysis, could never achieve outstanding success as a concert artist. From observing the student in his music classes, the teacher discovered that he had a fine sense of pitch and musical color and the ability to figure out combinations of instruments and voices that produced unusual effects.

The teacher encouraged the boy to arrange part of the music for a special concert. The boy used this chance to demonstrate his ability in making musical arrangements, and, in addition, learned to play the viola for the occasion.

These two interests continued after the concert and brought him wider social contacts. With a little encouragement he later made a study of the native music of Finland, the birthplace of his parents, and produced many fine arrangements for small vocal and instrumental groups.

Thus, without discouraging this young man from playing the violin or telling him that his initial ambition to be a concert violinist was futile, the teacher, by looking for positive abilities, was able to broaden his interests and help him progress along lines in which he had the greatest chance of being successful. The boy eventually became an enthusiastic music teacher and continued to produce skillful arrangements for school and for public performance.

In no other classroom, perhaps, is there more opportunity for skillful, unobtrusive guidance than in the art room. There the teacher works almost exclusively with individuals. He brings out the student's ideas, waits for him to discover his difficulty, makes suggestions that enable him to complete his work successfully. Pleased by the teacher's praise and helped by his tactful hints, students work with increased effort and interest. The teacher can usually find something of promise in any piece of work and is resourceful in making suggestions for improvement: a shift in line, the addition of another color, a detail added for balance. Under skillful, unobtrusive guidance, students grow in creative ability and in personality.

In Home Economics and Shop. The informal organization in these classes lends itself to friendly, personal contacts and the understanding of individual students. There is time to talk with each student about his life plans and interests. The

group work on common enterprises, such as painting the scenery for a play, or preparing luncheon for some preschool children, gives all the participants a sense of belonging and a feeling of worth and helps them learn to work in harmony with others. Each learns to act as a member of a small community, keeping tools, utensils, and supplies in good order for his own sake and that of others.

The flexibility of these classes provides for a wide range of individual differences, from students who will do routine manual work to those who may make a highly creative contribution. The work of each should be judged in relation to his ability and the progress he has made. Classes in this field should be permeated with the idea that every kind of socially useful work appropriate to the individual is commendable. Although the best work in these subjects may be done by the more intelligent students, those below average get great satisfaction from having a share in the accomplishment.

The therapeutic values of manual work and of creative work are well recognized. Occupational therapy and art therapy have already developed into important methods in the treatment of mental disorders. As an outlet for normal persons, self-expression through handicraft contributes to a constructive mental hygiene program. The interests in creative work that are built in school may prove of great value in the crises of later life.

The content of home economics is particularly rich in guidance values. Cooking and proper care of the home lay the foundation for health and good relationships in the home. Serving and eating meals give practice in good manners. Sewing and dress design help individual girls to improve their personal appearance and this, in turn, often leads to better social adjustments. These values are most likely to be realized if the home economics teacher keeps in close touch with the home and the parents and adapts her course to the needs of the community.

Many parents, teachers, and students do not fully understand the nature of home economics courses. In one school on "Parents' Night" a short play presented information about

various courses to the parents of seventh grade pupils. The dialogue between a seventh grade pupil, Jean, and a ninth grade pupil, Lucy, began as follows:

JEAN (puzzled): I see home economics is on my schedule. What can that be?

LUCY: I can tell you, for I've had home economics for three years.

JEAN: Please do. Will it be fun?

LUCY: As much fun as living, for it teaches how to live better.

You see, home economics is a study of home life: cooking, dressmaking, child care, interior decorating, care of minor illnesses, cleaning the house, laundering, repairing clothes, wise buying, and a good deal about good manners and grooming.

The conversation went on to give more information about the separate courses and about some of the vocations, in addition to teaching, that are open to girls trained in home economics: many branches of the textile and designing fields; interior decoration; dietetics; operation of restaurants, tea-rooms, and school and company lunchrooms; house management of clubs; field and promotion work for food companies; radio broadcasting; journalism; and the most important career open to women—homemaking. Thus parents and students learned about the wide range of vocations in this field and acquired new respect for the vocation of homemaker.

✓ Self-Appraisal for the Teacher ✓

As a check on whether they are providing conditions favorable to the best development of their students, teachers may ask themselves the following questions:

1. Does every student in my classes have work so suited to his abilities and needs that he can succeed with reasonable effort? Do I help students to learn from their failures?

2. Is my room free from an intensely competitive atmosphere? Do I help students to get recognition for the use of their abilities?

3. Do my students feel free to express their feelings about school, thus avoiding tension and a clash of wills that might divert their energy from study?

4. Do I really like the boys and girls in my classes? Do I realize that much of the behavior that makes teaching difficult represents a student's attempt to find a way out of a difficulty?

5. Do I treat my students with as much courteous consideration as I show to my friends and professional associates?

6. Do I respect each individual's personality and have faith in the realization of his best potentialities?

7. Do I provide group experiences in which students develop a sense of responsibility for group enterprises and get satisfaction from the success of others? Do I use school and community resources to meet individuals' needs?

8. Do I stimulate students to discover and evaluate their own abilities, strengths, and weaknesses and to meet difficulty or criticism in a constructive way?

9. Do I arouse students' interest in my subject and acquaint them with its cultural and vocational values?

10. Do I cooperate with the student's teacher-counselor and other teachers, as well as with the principal and guidance specialists?

11. Do I avoid labeling a student or making a generalization about him on the basis of a single incident or limited observation?

12. Do I try to understand him rather than judge him?

Teachers in every subject have a contribution to make to the individual development and guidance of students in their classes. They are not guidance specialists. Their task is developmental guidance. By their understanding of the needs of their students and by their skill in meeting these needs through the experiences provided in their classrooms, they prevent maladjustment and help every student to develop his potentialities.

V

GUIDANCE IN THE HOMEROOM

If every class had a teacher-counselor; if it offered students opportunity for discussion, committee work, and the development of leadership; and if its program was flexible enough to include current personal and school problems, there would be no need for homeroom periods. As was noted in Chapter II, the homeroom was introduced because so many departmentalized schools failed to make guidance an intrinsic part of the school day. In these schools many activities had been neglected:

- Counseling of every student to help him discover and develop the best in him.
- Cultivation of his special interests and abilities.
- Opportunities for him to learn how to live with boys and girls of his own age.
- Opportunities for groups to learn how to get results by democratic methods.
- Imparting of information of common interest and usefulness to the group.

To reinstate these activities, lost in the shuffle of departmentalization, the special period was introduced. Through it the curriculum could be extended to include content of immediate concern to students.

Once the idea of the homeroom period was introduced, it spread rapidly—too rapidly. Principals and superintendents said, “Let there be homerooms!” And there were homerooms. But there was also a dearth of homeroom teachers

who really understood what the period was for and how to use it to advantage. The result in many schools was chaos—or the mere addition of another class or study period. Teachers assigned to homeroom groups did not know what to do with them. Some perfunctorily followed suggested outlines; others merely let the students study; still others tried to keep order when the imposed activity fell apart because it appealed to no inherent interest in the group. Few or none of the values for which the period was introduced were realized. In fact, the experience was often detrimental. At present, one may note a trend toward abandoning the homeroom in favor of the extended period or core-curriculum form of organization, under which all the so-called homeroom activities may be included and guidance fused closely with instruction.

In many schools the homeroom period persists in various guises. Here the teacher's problem is how to use this scheduled time to the best advantage. The suggested methods of doing this, which are given in the rest of this chapter, are applicable to the extended period, core-curriculum, orientation-course, club, or any other form of organization in which group work and counseling are combined. More detail about group work processes will be given in the next chapter.

✓ Membership of the Homeroom Group ✓

For practice in democratic ways, it is necessary to have a group representing different abilities, backgrounds, and social status. Membership based on intelligence test scores does not provide sufficient variety of abilities and points of view. Diversity is usually assured if groups are based on the major subject or are alphabetically selected from the grade list or any other list of names that gives a cross section of the school population.

Sometimes pupils from all grade levels are included in the homeroom. This plan has the advantage of resembling society in its mingling of people of different ages. The older pupils can help the younger and build up a tradition of worthwhile accomplishment. However, this form of organization

lends itself better to social development than to the imparting of certain kinds of information. For example, ninth grade pupils would not be interested in the kind of vocational information that is of vital concern to twelfth graders. Another disadvantage is that the older and more experienced members of the group tend to deprive the younger members of opportunities for leadership.

For continuity of relationship, it is desirable for a group to remain with the same homeroom teacher for several years. Such an organization enables teacher and students to know one another better as time goes on. Even though one homeroom teacher passes on excellent records to another, many unrecorded impressions and personal relationships are lost in the transfer. Continuing with the same group during three or four years also facilitates progression of homeroom experiences without the necessity of following a somewhat rigid year-by-year program of homeroom activities.

The disadvantages of this plan are that (1) each grade group presents special problems that may be handled most effectively by a teacher who has had experience with a given age group and (2) a group that happens to get a poor homeroom teacher is penalized for the duration of the high school years. These objections to the permanent membership plan can be eliminated by providing for transfers from one homeroom to another, by making sure that there is a progression of experience, by selecting homeroom teachers carefully, and by assisting them in improving their counseling and group work technics.

✓ The Short Homeroom Period for Reporting ✓

The amount of time allotted to homeroom activities varies from five minutes a day to several full periods a week. Something can be accomplished, however short the period. To be sure, when only ten or fifteen minutes daily are allotted to the homeroom group, many of the anticipated values of this form of organization cannot be realized. Yet observation of many short periods shows wide differences in their guidance

value. In some rooms the teacher takes the entire time checking attendance and reading notices. The pupils talk to one another or study. To many of them the "homeroom" is "a place where you go to wait till the bell rings for the first class."

In other rooms, where the law permits, pupil officers assume responsibility for taking attendance, which is quickly checked by the teacher; for making announcements; for conducting the devotional exercises. If this is done expeditiously, four or five minutes are usually left for some group activity. A committee of students may present a program on which they have been working, perhaps for weeks. The following are illustrations of the effective use of limited homeroom time.

In one ninth grade class, the president called the meeting to order two minutes before the period officially began. After reading the notices, he introduced the committee that was responsible for the program that day. The chairman of the committee announced that they were presenting a program of Paul Robeson records. He said a few words about Paul Robeson, and then two members of the committee each played one record, telling something about it while he was putting it on the victrola.

In another room the teacher showed the students several magazines and books he had brought to class. He read a particularly amusing or dramatic passage from each. At the end of the period he said, "These books and magazines will be on the table for anyone who wants to read them in his free time."

In another room, the period was spent in committee work. Each committee was working on its special project; and the teacher went from one group to another, helping them to improve their committee technic.

Although the period in each case was far too short to accomplish all that could be done along these lines, the time limitation did have two advantages: (1) it made the students aware of the value of time and of how to make the most of odd moments; and (2) it encouraged them to use initiative and ingenuity to find ways of doing the things they wanted to do as a group.

✓ The Homeroom Period of Full Class Length ✓

The time commonly allotted to homeroom activities is one forty-five or fifty-minute period a week. This, too, may be used in various ways, such as those following.

Pupil-Initiated Projects. A real pupil project has many values: it helps to establish a good relationship with the homeroom teacher, for here is someone who is with them and accepts their suggestions; it gives them the experience of working together on committees; it helps to set a standard of wholesome recreation; it gives individuals opportunity to lose themselves in a group enterprise. For example, the first thing a tenth grade homeroom wanted to do was to have a party. In the first meeting the teacher presided to show them how their president, to be elected later, would conduct a discussion. They first pooled suggestions as to the kind of party to have: an afternoon party, an evening party, a costume party, a "hard times" party, or an athletic meet. They considered the pros and cons of each and finally decided upon an afternoon party of games. Then they appointed an entertainment committee to plan the details, a refreshment committee, a reception committee to invite guests and see that they had a good time, a decoration committee, and a "clean-up" committee.

The next homeroom period they spent in committee work and the following one in committee reports to the entire group. In the fourth week the party was held, and in the fifth period the students spent some time in evaluating the work of each of the committees and the success of the party as a whole. It had been successful, and the group, who had entered the homeroom expecting to be bored, were eager to attempt another group enterprise. They decided upon an assembly program.

Throughout the year this group moved from project to project, growing in their ability to work together and gaining real satisfaction from the process. This teacher was com-

pletely in sympathy with teen-age youngsters. It was her opinion that while formal guidance lessons may be good on paper, they do not produce the changes she desired in boys and girls. Pupil-initiated enterprises, on the other hand, have vitality. They are the medium in which good conduct is best developed. The relationship between this teacher and her pupils began to improve the moment she accepted their initial suggestion about a party. From then on they were alert, interested, talkative, and self-controlled.

Programs Planned by Students. Somewhat more formal than the project are the popular homeroom programs that are planned by students. These may take many forms. Most common, perhaps, is the "talent show," in which members of the class have a chance to entertain the others with music, dramatizations, "sleight of hand," or other special acts.

In one homeroom, an "International Day" program, in which five students told about their experiences in foreign countries, held the attention of the class with its humor and dramatic incidents. A student chairman was in charge. The teacher, in the audience, observed the poise of the various speakers and gained insight into personality traits and home backgrounds. The students likewise gained an understanding of their classmates that promoted friendly relations.

A hobby show is another popular type of program that frequently increases the group's recognition of and friendliness toward students who do not excel in any of the generally accepted adolescent "lines."

In one large city school, the homeroom program mentioned by pupils and teachers as the best they had participated in that year was a panel discussion. On the first day a group of boys sat around a table and frankly said what they liked and disliked about girls. On the next day, the girls had their chance to tell what they liked and disliked about boys. Girls were impressed when the boys said they did not like girls who make them feel conspicuous by wearing extreme clothes or make-up. Similarly, when the most attractive girls expressed their appreciation of good manners and good grooming, the boys sat up and took notice. Mixed panels of boys

and girls discussing boy-girl relationships, part-time work experience, family relations, and other matters that are of concern to the group have also proved effective.

These programs have value far beyond their content. By being held accountable to the group rather than to the teacher for having their part of the program ready at the appointed time, certain students are helped to develop habits of responsibility. By gaining genuine recognition for good work, they are helped to feel that they amount to something and that they are respected by the group. The most sincere teacher approval has far less weight with adolescents than the appreciation of their peers.

Discussion of School Problems. Every school has its problems, many of which can be solved by the students thinking and working together. The homeroom provides both time and a good working organization for student participation in the solution of school problems.

One junior high school principal anticipated some problems by sending each pupil in the seventh grade homerooms a letter mentioning several disturbances, frequent in former years, of school routine—irregular attendance, tardiness, loss of articles from lockers, and failure to use the nursing service in case of illness. These groups spent their first homeroom period discussing why these few rules and regulations were necessary and desirable. With respect to tardiness, for example, it was suggested that “something important often happens at the beginning of the period, which one would miss, if he were late.” The teacher suggested that they think about the still unsolved problem of unnecessary noise in the locker room, and be ready to discuss it in their next homeroom meeting.

The following week many pupils were ready with suggestions. One said that everyone should just make up his mind to be quiet. Another asked, “What about those who don’t?” In the course of the discussion pupils suggested the most important factors in the situation: Classes were going on in rooms next to the locker room; noise there made it difficult for these teachers and pupils; since it is natural to be noisy

while getting ready for swimming, one must use self-control. In fact, there was only one reason why one should be quiet: consideration for others.

In another junior high homeroom, some pupils had been leaving the school between periods to patronize the corner candy store. This problem was brought up for discussion and clarified as follows:

TEACHER: Yesterday two boys left school at the ten-minute interval and bought ice cream pops. What are some of the things involved in that behavior?

MARY: It's a poor health habit to eat sweets between meals.

JIM: Other people were doing it; why shouldn't they?

TEACHER: What about that?

PHYLLIS: I think it's a rather silly argument. If other people began to stroll across the street when the green light was on, you wouldn't feel you had to do it, too.

TEACHER: What would be better than to make a flimsy excuse like that?

MARY: To say, "I was wrong."

DONALD: There's another point. Why should two or three boys have special privileges? It isn't fair for them to go to the store between periods, if the rest of us can't.

HELEN: Another thing is that they disturb the rest of the class by coming in a little late.

TEACHER: Who can summarize the arguments against leaving the school between periods?

PHYLLIS: There are three points: it's an unhealthy habit, it's an unfair privilege, and it disturbs others.

TEACHER: Are all of these arguments sound?

Pupils agreed that they were.

TEACHER: Are there any sound arguments for doing it?

Pupils thought of none.

TEACHER: Then what do you think we'd better do about it in the future?

The pupils made this rule: No one is to leave school between classes. They added it to the code they had earlier made to govern their conduct in school. As this was an immature group with little experience in democratic procedure, the teacher took more initiative than she did later when they had become more proficient in the group problem-solv-

ing method. As an experience in "acting on thinking," this was good practice for them.

Another example of a school problem that was analyzed and solved through homeroom discussion has been reported by a homeroom teacher and adviser of the senior class in a boys' college preparatory school.

We were beginning to experience, in an increasing degree, a number of difficulties with our senior class. There was no single focus of maladjustment at first apparent; rather a score of minor breaches in school discipline and good manners, and failures to achieve up to capacity. The senior class, as a whole, seemed indifferent to its obligations and responsibilities; there was a definite lack of both school and class spirit. Even pupils who had made distinguished records in previous years were beginning to have "run-ins" with teachers; some who were leaders in extracurricular activities, in which they, as seniors, now held high offices, were commencing to "soldier on their jobs," to shirk responsibilities or neglect them altogether. Others who had previously manifested interest, and even talent, in certain kinds of work or recreational activities now appeared to be completely indifferent to them and were failing to live up to the promise that they had previously revealed. Some of the best pupils were among the most chronic offenders. Many of them appeared to have become "smart alecs," quick to take advantage of loopholes in the school organization or to turn to jest, scorn, and ridicule the well-intentioned efforts of teachers in their behalf. They seemed frightfully "sophisticated" persons who had learned their way around their little world—and perhaps even the big one! So much for the leaders.

The majority of the other pupils affected stolid or callous indifference. They were busy with their work; "trifles" didn't matter.

Social events and other class functions, traditionally important in the senior year of school life, were poorly supported. Class meetings were disorderly. Rival "factions" made charges against each other of failure to support common enterprises. And from the standpoint of the rest of the school, especially pupils in the lower grades, it was obvious that the seniors were overwhelmed with a feeling of their own importance.

The situation that had developed in the senior class was recognized only too keenly by its class adviser and homeroom teacher. He had known these boys for a number of years—indeed, for

most of their high school lives—individually and intimately. He had been their homeroom teacher for three years and knew what, as a group, they could do, and what, as individuals, they were interested in and capable of achieving. As the teacher responsible for their guidance, he was certain that the apparent change that had come over his “charges” was more than their simply having “come of age.” Quite contrary to present indications, they were actually and potentially a superior group, capable of real attainment and of making a conspicuous contribution to the life of the school. He proceeded as follows:

He put the situation squarely before them, detailing precisely what seemed to have occurred and what was still happening. He spoke to them as a group, as a class, without citing individual cases. At first the class was inclined to be skeptical; they did not quite see themselves as others saw them, nor did they see any significance in the term “senioritis” as applied to them. But as days went on and individual instances multiplied, they began to understand, now that the matter had been brought to their attention. Homeroom discussions became quite frank; they even expressed some bitterness toward the school, toward certain teachers, and toward each other. Things were far from right, they now agreed. However, they were ready, at the suggestion of their counselor, to cut further recriminations and to settle down to the business of remedying the situation.

They began, first, by analyzing the situation itself, quite skillfully, in the homeroom period. A number of factors contributing to the general deterioration were brought to light. They were:

1. Most of the students were heavily burdened with homework assignments. Throughout its school history, the class had been a very superior group, and the teachers had come to expect much of it. The result was that individual teachers had piled up work that students were finding great difficulty in keeping up with; this, in turn, had led to discouragement and a sense of frustration which was responsible for much of the antagonism recently experienced between teachers and pupils. Most of the breaches in discipline were easily traced back, directly or indirectly, to this source.

2. This tension was further increased by the fact that 98 of the 105 seniors were candidates for admission to colleges, most of which maintained high standards of entrance. The competition among students was keen; even the better students felt the strain of this pressure. Most students had to spend from three to

four hours on homework daily, in addition to assignments completed during school hours; hence they had to sacrifice extracurricular and class activities.

3. By their own constitutions and by-laws, the student honorary societies had, until this time, followed a point system for membership, based upon the number of activities in which a student participated as well as the quality of work he did in them and the positions of leadership which he had attained. The result was that many students had begun to work for points rather than from a genuine interest. Because of their superiority, the more gifted pupils were monopolizing most of the responsible positions. Not only were they unable to discharge these responsibilities satisfactorily, but the other boys had lost interest.

The homeroom teacher took up the matter of home study with the various subject teachers of the senior class. The question was also brought up later in a general faculty meeting. The subject teachers proved most willing to cooperate, with the result that the amount of homework assigned was reduced by almost half.

A faculty committee was appointed to work with the General Organization of the student body which had originally been responsible for the point systems used by the honorary societies. After further deliberations, the point system was abandoned, and a new plan was adopted by which excellence of contribution and general citizenship in the school were made the basis for choice. The faculty and students joined in forming a new committee to receive recommendations for honors, to study the merits of each individual case, and to arrive at final decisions for the granting of these awards. (The students did not wish to abolish entirely the practice of recognizing outstanding work, both curricular and extracurricular.) Resolutions also were adopted limiting the number of activities in which a student could engage and in which he could hold high office.

With the homeroom teacher as counselor, a plan for college admissions (it was already in force but had not yet had time to make itself felt) resulted in relieving pressure, apprehension, and competition with regard to college entrance through the exercise of wider choices especially by students ranking below the median of the class. This plan, furthermore, proved effective in the better placing of individuals among respective colleges.

The results of this procedure were gratifying:

1. Practically all the original symptoms disappeared or diminished in a short time.

2. The students were happier, began to enjoy their work again and to go on to high attainment.

3. Both school and class spirit moved from a very low to a new high point.

4. Extracurricular and class activities were resumed with new enthusiasm.

5. No senior, who had completed his entrance requirements and received the school's recommendation, failed to gain admission to a major college.

This is an excellent example of the use of a homeroom group to analyze a school problem. Grievances were brought into the open; the homeroom teacher showed his good faith by bringing the excessive homework to the attention of the faculty. Through student-faculty cooperation changes were made in student activity policies. Through improved educational guidance, the tension over college admission was reduced. These results were possible because the homeroom teacher knew his students well, relied on their ability to face the problem frankly and intelligently, and gained the cooperation of other faculty members in making the changes indicated by the homeroom group's analysis.

Robert Hallett¹ made an interesting experiment in the junior high school of Montclair, New Jersey. It occurred to him that students might be harboring resentments and irritations about school matters that they would hesitate to voice to the student council. These grievances might be the result of a distortion of facts that, if brought out into the open, could be easily righted. So he originated in his homeroom a period known as the "gripe" session. He discovered that this session was of value both to teacher and to students. It helped the teacher to see things from the students' point of view, and the latter appreciated having serious consideration given to their stated grievances. To illustrate, one day Mr. Hallett was called from his room during a class period. During his absence the class was in great disorder. Since he was not sure who caused the trouble, he punished the entire group. In the "gripe" session he learned that the students

¹ Robert Hallett, "The 'Gripe' Session," *Clearing House*, 16:198-202, December, 1941.

resented very much being punished for something they did not do. At the same time they could see the teacher's point of view, since he did not know who the culprits were. They agreed that they did not want him to ask them to "tattle." After some discussion one girl suggested that, if he would allow the president to take charge when he was called out of the room, the president could report students who were out of order. He wouldn't be "tattling," but simply performing the duty for which the group had made him responsible. This suggestion was successfully put into effect.

Discussion of Prepared Cases. Two common methods of stimulating discussion are to read a case or an incident to the group or to show an excerpt of a motion picture. In Providence, Rhode Island, for example, books of case descriptions followed by questions are sent to teachers from the superintendent's office. The teachers use these cases as a basis for systematic discussion or refer to them when the need arises. For example, if stealing has appeared in the school, a case describing this type of problem may be brought before the classes. If a number of students are having difficulties with their academic work, the technics of study may be discussed. In the Providence schools these discussions are held in regularly scheduled classes in occupational civics. They are equally appropriate in homeroom periods. The teacher's policy is to withhold his own judgment and to encourage the students to express their opinions. Carefully worded questions and well-trained teachers are essential if desirable attitudes are to be built. The training of teachers for this work consists of (1) demonstrating to them the best ways to conduct this type of discussion, (2) observing them as they work and offering helpful criticisms and suggestions, and (3) urging them individually to study group discussion methods.

The question frequently arises as to how much control the teacher should exercise in homeroom discussions. Some people believe that the teacher should maintain neutrality on all questions that arise. Others feel that the teacher's opinion should form part of the basis on which students make their decision. Certainly when the student leadership

is weak, wrong attitudes are frequently formed if the teacher never intervenes. For example, when a rather unpopular girl mentioned the undesirability of participating in two strenuous athletic events in the same afternoon, the class as a whole was scornful and derisive and no other point of view was presented. It takes a skillful discussion leader to focus public opinion in the right direction. The average high school boy or girl cannot do this. Under such circumstances is it better for the wrong attitudes to gain headway or for the teacher to express his opinion on the subject?

Dr. M. A. Tarumiana and Colonel H. Edmond Bullis have developed group discussions with emphasis on mental hygiene in seventh and eighth grade public school classes in Delaware. The main features of these classes are as follows:

1. A real-life situation is presented by the teacher, who tells a story, reads an excerpt from a book or newspaper, tells a personal anecdote, or has pupils read the parts of a short play or recount stories of their own.

2. The pupils discuss freely the problems thus presented, the motivations of the behavior, and the soundness of the solutions offered; they also bring in related experiences of their own.

3. Shy children are brought into the discussion; the teacher and the class leader have already conferred about which children need to be brought into group activities.

4. Among the story topics which have stimulated discussion are "the importance of friends," "personality traits of a 'regular fellow,'" "how various kinds of punishment affect us," "the results of continued failure on personality development," "personal qualifications for different vocations," "problems of a new pupil in school," "the advantages and disadvantages of being timid and shy," "relations with younger brothers and sisters," "learning to lose gracefully," "problems of having older relatives or outsiders living in the family," "setting goals in line with one's capacity and opportunity."

Pupils enjoy this human relations class. Shy pupils often experience a feeling of success because they are able to take part in it. It has held the attention of the slow group better

than any of their other classes. Because of their different experience of life, certain boys with court records make excellent contributions to the discussion. All seem to understand their actions better after bringing them out in the open.

Election of Officers. In every homeroom or club the election of officers is one of the most important activities. A well-conducted election is an educational experience for all concerned if the adult leader can make it so.

Many details need his attention. First, the members must understand the qualifications needed for different positions. If these are formulated by the group, on the basis of a job analysis, those who nominate will make better choices. Those who nominate and those who vote should know the qualifications for each position and the persons who are available. In the discussion it should be clearly brought out that popularity, friendship, or sex is not a sound basis for nominating or electing persons to office and that progression of experience for the individual should be considered. In a discussion of the best basis on which to elect the chairman, one boy said, "I don't think we should choose a candidate just because he's a boy. We should select the person we want regardless of sex." Another immediately replied, "The important thing is not that we get the person *we* want but that we choose the person who will do the work best." Thus attitudes toward the election of public officials are built.

Second, a refusal to serve offers an opportunity to discuss why a person should accept a nomination if it is offered. A position of leadership often brings out unrecognized ability; it contributes to the personal development of the student who accepts its responsibility. It is also a way of serving the group. During the election of officers in a homeroom group, one of the girls nominated said she did not want to serve. Here was an opportunity to build attitudes regarding this matter. The teacher said, "I hope no one will ever say 'no' when he is called upon to do something for the good of the group. We should be willing to accept such responsibility even though we are busy or are timid about our ability to

fill the position. Holding office is not only a good opportunity for you to give service; it may also show you that you can do something you thought was too difficult for you. You were all pleased this morning with the way Jerry represented you in the assembly. And he thought at first that he couldn't do it!"

Third, the candidate who is not elected has an opportunity to learn how to meet defeat. Before the election it is sometimes helpful to discuss with the nominees the possibility of not being elected. In one college a luncheon is held at which all candidates for office consider desirable attitudes on the part of defeated nominees. An opportunity for establishing good attitudes toward defeat occurred in the homeroom period mentioned above. When the class was ready to vote for the nominees for secretary, the question of voting method arose. One girl suggested that the candidates close their eyes so that they could not see how many votes they received. This was opposed by one student who said, "I don't think anyone in this class would mind being defeated. Everyone can't be elected. Someone is sure to be thought better for the office than the others." The teacher asked each candidate, "You would not mind being defeated, would you?" Each agreed that he would not mind. This attitude toward defeat was expressed so openly and universally that none of the disappointment that often follows school elections was evident.

When the teacher is sensitive to all these educational possibilities, personal and civic values result from skillfully conducted elections, as in the following examples:

In a seventh grade homeroom the first period was spent in getting better acquainted. In the second period the election of officers took place. The teacher made a game of testing herself on the names of all the boys and girls, thus making sure they knew one another. For each officer to be elected he mentioned one or two important qualifications. For example, he characterized the secretary as one who has the ability to present the important points of the meeting in an interesting way and to leave out dull, trivial details. He reviewed the correct parliamentary procedure for making and seconding nominations and gave immediate opportunity

for practicing it. Realizing that this group was young and inexperienced in group procedures, the teacher was more directive than he would have been with an experienced group and than he was with this group later in the year after they had learned the basic technics of conducting a meeting.

Another teacher handled the nominations for homeroom officers as follows:

TEACHER: What qualifications should we consider in making our nominations for chairman?

JOHN: He should be able to speak before a group.

MORRIS: He should be fair—give everyone a chance to speak.

PHYLLIS: He should not try to run the class himself and have things his way.

TEACHER: Those are all important qualifications: John's—ability to speak before a group; Morris's—willingness to give everyone a chance to take part in the discussion; Phyllis's—ability to represent the group, not try to run it his way. May I suggest one more thing to consider in making nominations—to nominate a person who needs the experience of being chairman rather than someone who we all know can do the job well, but who wouldn't learn very much from the experience.

Helping Elected Leaders. In spite of their discussion of qualifications, the group may choose a weak chairman. What should the teacher do then? It would be unwise to hold another election or to appoint a more competent chairman. It is much better to strengthen the one chosen. By reading Bailard and McKown's² appealing book for leaders, the chairman can learn how to conduct meetings and work effectively with his group. If necessary, the teacher can give him help outside of class on how to handle certain situations. Some of his duties may at first be delegated to a more able student or to the teacher. After mastering the simpler duties of his office, he will be able to handle progressively more difficult situations.

In one homeroom the secretary was assisted in the performance of his duties by the following directions, which were written on the blackboard. This was a simple, time-

² Virginia Bailard and Harry C. McKown. *So You Were Elected*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

saving method of instructing him in a correct and orderly procedure for doing his job. At the same time it called the attention of the rest of the class to the importance of the motions they made.

The minutes should include:

1. Name of organization.
2. Kind of meeting.
3. Place.
4. Date and hour.
5. Name of presiding officer.
6. Number present.
7. Motions stated and votes taken.
8. Manner of adjournment.
9. Signature of secretary.

The secretary never expresses his personal opinion:

1. Each motion, with the name of the maker and the vote on it, should be recorded in a separate paragraph.
2. Discussion of a motion is not included in the minutes.

It is frequently difficult to get an exuberant group to conform to the limitations set by parliamentary procedures. If the chairman is weak, the teacher may have to intervene. In one effervescent group the voting was conducted in so hilarious a fashion that there were two more votes than the number of persons present. At this point, the teacher intervened by saying, "Let's do this the square way—as it should be done." They then reviewed the parliamentary procedure involved.

"Now let's practice what we know," the teacher said. "We can conduct our election efficiently and in a more grown-up way. You don't want to have a chairman telling you what to do. You can handle the situation yourselves."

After this amount of direction, cooperation and order replaced the earlier confusion, the election was properly held, and plans progressed rapidly.

In another instance, when there was confusion because one boy was monopolizing the floor, the teacher said, "This discussion should bring out arguments on both sides of the question, shouldn't it? I'm afraid you didn't hear what the others said, Ralph." Later, in the same group, when a pupil

made the motion that "Albert select the other members of the committee," the class said, "No." At this point, the teacher stepped in to establish correct parliamentary procedure. She said, "There was a motion. Does anyone second it?" No one seconded it. "Then the motion is lost."

The teacher here helped the pupils to do better the things they were doing. She demonstrated correct parliamentary procedure. She recognized their need for certain limits and stepped in and set them. With this amount of guidance, they were able to go ahead on their own steam. She taught them to select one point for discussion and get somewhere on it. She did not step in so often that the pupils felt that she was interfering or depended on her to take responsibility for the success of their meetings. They felt free to experiment and to work out ideas for their homeroom period.

Imparting Information. The homeroom period is frequently used to give the group information that would otherwise have to be given individually. When this imparting of information is followed by discussion and problem-solving, it is an important use of homeroom time. Students entering the school or college need orientation about the buildings, traditions, educational and recreational opportunities, and other matters. Confronted with longer and more difficult assignments, they are ready for help on effective reading and study methods. If they are expected to take responsibility for planning their work, they welcome suggestions on budgeting time. If they have been elected to positions of leadership, they need to know more about conducting meetings and initiating, planning, and carrying out activities. The task of planning a course of study for the next three or four years requires a knowledge of the requirements for graduation and for admission to other institutions and of available courses and curricula.

For example, one core-curriculum class spent many periods in discussing each subject field: the courses it comprises, its interesting features, its vocational and avocational values, and its place in the students' present program. If some students

were not at all concerned with a particular field, they were permitted to spend the period working in the library, laboratory, or elsewhere.

Some homerooms, especially in the senior year, spend a large amount of time on the study of vocations. In one group the vocational guidance unit was introduced by a vocational guidance expert. During the hour she brought out clearly the need for planning:

If you take more commercial credits than a college will accept, you are shutting the door to a college career. If your plan does not include college, and you do not take commercial or other practical courses, you will not be able to get a job when you graduate. So you choose subjects that will bring you nearer to the thing you want to do. If you are not going to college, plan a course that will fit you for business, a trade, or other work. If you are going to college, take the subjects required for college entrance. As these requirements change every few years, you must keep up to date. Colleges rate students on personality as well as on academic achievement. In admitting students they consider ability and achievement, participation in student activities, co-operation, courtesy, dress, manners, and other personal characteristics.

In discussing vocational objectives she said:

Investigate the fields of work in which you are already interested and look at other fields, too. There are a number of books that will help you do this. Some of them I have brought, and will leave here for you to look over. [For a list of such books and pamphlets see Appendix B].

In college some new field may open up to you. Vocational objectives change with your experience. Therefore keep your interests broad. Become informed about the vocations that interest you most and, by the process of elimination, finally find the one most suited to you. Take advantage of radio programs and newspaper and magazine stories on occupations. You will see various occupations depicted in the movies. Usually you can meet and interview persons who have engaged in the occupations which you are considering.

You must keep on growing to keep up with life. Life does not stand still, nor can you. You are never through growing and

learning. Do not give up a strong interest until you have made a thorough study of the field. What may be a difficulty for others, may not be for you. Eventually you will find the field for which you are particularly fitted.

This introduction to the field of vocational guidance gave the students the feeling that there was a definite place in the world for each of them. The speaker introduced possibilities that they were eager to follow up. Consequently they decided to spend as many periods as necessary working along the lines she had indicated.

In a vocational guidance unit certain pupils may volunteer to have their interviews with the counselor before the entire class. The members then take part in the discussion; they are usually eager to help one another in their self-evaluation and vocational planning. By hearing several such interviews, students learn a method of exploring their own vocational interests independently. These are some of the questions usually asked: What seem to be your vocational interests at present? What subjects will help you develop these? What is your scholarship rating in these subjects? Why do you think you would like to do this type of work? Is there a demand for this particular vocation? Does your choice require specialized training? If so, can you obtain this training? Where? Have you ever talked with anyone who is doing this type of work?

If the class as a whole has taken a vocational interest inventory such as the Kuder Preference Record, they can compare the results with their expressed interests.

In order for this type of period to be successful, the following conditions should prevail:

1. The students should feel both a need and a readiness for the information.
2. They should have a share in locating and presenting it, for example, in committee reports.
3. The information should be accurate and definite. Experts should be invited to supplement the students' knowledge.
4. The information should be geared into the students' plans and purposes.

✓ Counseling the Individual Student in the Homeroom ✓

Each homeroom should be a counseling center. The teacher should spend part of the homeroom or core-curriculum time in counseling individuals. Because of the informal nature of the period, the homeroom teacher can usually do more guidance during group activity than can the classroom teacher. At other times, when the students are working independently or in committees, the teacher may talk privately to individuals. In the informal organization of the homeroom, the teacher can often follow up immediately clues obtained from observation of relationships in the group.

Homeroom teachers in one school acquired a background of knowledge of the individual students in the following manner: They assisted in testing and registering students. The testing gave them an opportunity to observe individuals and the group as a whole. During the admission interviews they obtained data about background and needs of each individual. At a staff meeting, attended by the special guidance workers, the information about each student was interpreted with reference to the experiences that might be provided to meet individual needs.

Each homeroom teacher made an analysis of his class: the distribution of mental ability, the vocational and other interests represented, the social backgrounds and ambitions, the physical condition of each student. This picture of the group formed a background against which the personal data about each student became more meaningful. The following is one teacher's over-view of her class:

The eleventh grade consists of nineteen pupils, of whom sixteen are girls. In spite of this, the boys are not too much overshadowed; they are lively and interesting persons. Two of the boys are photographers, and are going to tell us about this hobby in a homeroom period. One of the boys is an outstanding leader, having superior ability, a very alert manner, and considerable experience in participating in group discussion.

Among the girls there are many interesting personalities. One girl came over from France a month ago, having lived in Paris

most of her life; her comparison of this school with her French lycée was revealing and amusing to us. Another girl has been in America only four years, having come from Germany; she has been very kind to our French refugee, explaining our customs and manners to her and helping her to fill out the many blanks and questionnaires. Others are from California, Louisiana, Virginia, Connecticut, and other states.

The class has liveliness and spontaneity. The students seem intellectually curious, eager to hear new things and to discuss things they already know. They are generally dependable. Only occasionally must they be restrained from the abuse of liberties.

The reading interests of the group cover a wide range, from *Rilla of Ingleside* to Dostoevski, from movie magazines to *Coronet* and *The Nation*. Their hobbies are equally varied—from dressmaking to psychiatry. Their problems involve: ill health in the family, financial difficulties, choice of a vocation, difficulties in school. The French refugee stated that her greatest problem is “to become an intelligent, interesting, and good girl”; judging to date she seems to be solving it very well.

The chronological ages of the class run from fourteen to nineteen, with the median fifteen. The mental ages are from 15-0 to 20-4, with the median at 18-6. The intelligence quotients based on the Terman group test are from 100 to 148, with the median at 127.

These boys and girls seem normally healthy and attractive. Of course, some are aggressive while others are shy, and some of the pupils as well as their parents express the hope that they may gain self-confidence through participating in the activities of the school. This is especially true of pupils coming from boys' or girls' high schools, where they have little opportunity for normal contacts with the opposite sex.

The class has elected as chairman a very capable girl. We have had thus far two homeroom periods, one of which was a planning period, the other a program of talks about foreign countries by five members of the class who have lived in or visited these places. Those who spoke showed poise, imagination, and good observation as well as a fine sense of humor.

A homeroom teacher in a school having no special guidance workers called at the homes of all her students before school began. She had previously talked with the teacher who had the group the year before, and had familiarized herself with each student's personal information card in the office. During

the visits, the teacher became acquainted with each child, with the result that at her first homeroom meeting she was greeted by a roomful of friends. She had something in common with each child. She knew about their vocational experiences, their pets, their hobbies, their interests, their abilities in sports and games, their playmates. She knew something about their relations with their parents and about the experiences they had had that would enrich the group. If they had had special difficulties such as shifts of school in early years or serious illness, she used this information to help them to get off to a good start.

During the year parents often invite homeroom teachers to their homes. After seeing a child in his home environment and observing how he is dealt with there, the teacher can work with him more constructively in school.

In making home visits, teachers should be as expert as possible. The following suggestions are helpful:

1. The first visit should be friendly—not concerned with any problem or difficulty. It is too bad that many teachers' only contact with the home occurs when the youngster has got into some kind of trouble.

2. The teacher should have an invitation to visit; he should not drop in upon the parents unexpectedly.

3. A good way of gaining rapport is to ask the parents' help on certain school questions or problems, or to ask them what suggestions they have for helping the school to provide the best possible opportunities for their child.

In general, it seems best to permit teachers to make home visits but not to require or forbid them. It is also desirable for teachers to work with visiting teachers, or school social workers, so that they gain appreciation of the expert social worker's approach to parents and children. One case will serve to illustrate the role of the homeroom teacher as counselor. Almost every teacher has had the experience of seeing a rather sudden change in a boy or girl in his class. The following is an example:

Miss Merton, a homeroom teacher of eleventh grade pupils, had become increasingly concerned over the behavior of lanky, fifteen-year-old Jim. He had become restless and inattentive

during study periods and in her English class. His earlier grades of A and B had changed to D and Unsatisfactory. His former polite and friendly attitude toward teachers and students was gradually being replaced by a mocking politeness; and on one or two occasions his remarks in class had been rude. He fidgeted continually in his seat and spent most of his time gazing out of the window overlooking the athletic field.

This change in behavior disturbed Miss Merton, and she wanted to find the reasons for it. She knew that Jim's parents had been in Lithuania, that his father had a well-paid job in the paper mill, and that his mother, a large woman, overbearing in manner, was keeping house in a small two-family house near the school. Miss Merton also knew that Jim had adequate scholastic aptitude to do good high school work.

On the theory that this change in Jim might be due to physical causes, Miss Merton went to the school nurse, from whom she learned that Jim's mother had accompanied him at the time of his routine admission examination by the school physician. The mother had produced a note signed by a physician from their former home town stating, "Jim H—— has a heart murmur and should not participate in gym or competitive sports." Mrs. H—— said that Jim had been very good in his studies and had not even wanted to take gym classes; no after school sports had been offered. "Anyway," she added, "he had no time for athletics. He used to help his father in the garage after school."

The school physician found the boy in good health; there was no indication of a heart murmur. However, the findings of the private physician were respected and Jim was excused from gym classes. When asked how he felt about this, Jim gave a non-committal shrug and said he didn't know anything much about sports anyway.

A few days later Miss Merton and the nurse had a short conference with the guidance-minded principal. They decided to contact Jim's other teachers to learn more about his behavior in other classes. Each teacher's report rounded out the picture of marked restlessness, inattention in class, and progressively poorer work. It was also noted that Jim was beginning to have difficulties with other boys in his classes. His remarks were provocative, and he fought effectively with words. He had begun to bully the smaller boys and had been heard to retort on several occasions, "I wouldn't even want to play such stupid games [referring to the after-school athletics] with a bunch of sissies."

By now Miss Merton had some important information in her possession. She knew that Jim's behavior in her class was being duplicated in other classes; that whatever it was that was disturbing him was spreading to his relationships with fellow students. She wondered whether his inability to participate in athletics in this school was bothering him far more than it had in his former school. The life of this town literally revolved about the school and its well-kept athletic field and victorious baseball and football teams.

She decided that the next step was to find out how Jim himself felt, so she made an appointment with him. He came to the conference seemingly sullen and wary; he shifted nervously in his seat. He seemed suspicious of Miss Merton's casual questions about how he spent his time after school. His answers were at first evasive, "Oh, I just work around and help some at home. Then I go out in the street and fool around."

"How do you help at home, Jim?"

"Well, I don't do much—clean up the yard and go to the store."

"And when you're not helping at home or studying?"

"Oh, I don't know. I read some." Jim seemed uncomfortable.

"You don't feel happy in school any more?"

"Oh, I guess I'm doing O.K., but I don't like it much any more."

"Your grades were so very good up until two months ago. Why do you feel you have suddenly lost interest?"

"I don't know, Miss Merton. I guess it's because I'm tired all the time. You know, I've got heart trouble." This last statement was spoken with sudden vehemence.

"Perhaps, Jim, it would be a good idea if you saw Dr. B—— (the school doctor). He might be able to discover why you feel tired all the time and could help, I'm sure. Perhaps you would like to see the school nurse in the morning and let her make an appointment?"

"All right" (with no enthusiasm). "Shall I bring my mother?"

"Perhaps you had better ask the nurse whether it will be necessary for your mother to come. She could answer that better than I."

Although Jim had not talked freely or poured forth his feelings about the whole situation, Miss Merton got the impression that his work at home was not important to him; that he was using his heart trouble as an explanation of his lack of energy; that he was willing to try, but not hopeful about, finding a way out; and that he was still dependent on his mother.

On the following morning Jim went to the health office and made an appointment with the physician for the next afternoon. They decided that Jim should come without his mother.

Before the appointment the nurse contacted Jim's former physician by telephone. After consulting his files, the physician advised the nurse that the heart murmur had been noted two years ago and was probably of a functional type. He said that he had yielded to Mrs. H——'s insistence that Jim be excluded from physical education at that time and that he felt that Jim should now act upon the present findings of the school physician. This information the nurse discussed with the school physician.

The examination showed no trace of heart murmur, and an electrocardiogram reading at the local hospital confirmed the school physician's diagnosis that Jim's heart was perfectly healthy. When the physician advised Jim that his heart was sound and that he might now take gym and enter any of the sports he wished, he became greatly agitated. He spoke rapidly, saying that his mother wouldn't let him, that he didn't want to anyway, that he didn't know how, and finally that the fellows would laugh at him.

After they had returned to the nurse's office, the boy calmed down and gradually began to ask questions, "Did the doctor really mean I could do anything—even play baseball?" He went on excitedly for a few moments. Suddenly he stopped. His face clouded. "But my mother wouldn't let me—she still thinks I have heart trouble. And the fellows would laugh—I don't know any games—that is, I *know* them, but I've never even batted a ball."

"Your mother is coming in tomorrow to talk with the doctor, Jim. I'm sure that she will be glad to learn that your heart is all right now, and that she will want to see you out with the other fellows. You especially like baseball?"

"Gee, yes! I've been to see the Big League games in the city—and I bet I *could* hit!"

"I'll bet you could, too, Jim, and, with Mr. F——'s (the gym instructor) coaching, you'll be out on that diamond before you know it." The boy left feeling very happy.

The mother presented difficulties. She did not readily accept the physician's statement that Jim's heart condition had been functional and that the murmur was no longer present. She reluctantly agreed to his taking gym but insisted that he had no time to stay after school hours playing foolish games. It took a number of skillful weekly interviews with the principal to

help Mrs. H—— see the possible relation between Jim's school work and his strong desire and need to be "a regular fellow." Mrs. H—— finally agreed to allow Jim a few hours weekly for after-school baseball practice.

The gym instructor, who was made aware of the adjustments needed, gave Jim individual, though unobtrusive, help during class hours and spent two hours weekly drilling him on batting and catching. This instruction together with a keen interest and natural aptitude gradually gave Jim the self-confidence he needed to join the other boys in practice games on the diamond. His acceptance by the other fellows was by no means immediate, but it gradually came about as his skill increased.

With the aid of Miss Merton Jim learned to budget his time so as to complete his homework, satisfy his mother's "work requirements" at home, and still have time for enjoyable hours on the diamond.

This increased satisfaction in school life had a favorable effect on his school work. He showed a marked improvement in his grades, since "all B's or above" were prerequisite to baseball practice. Although Jim never became a hero of the "local nine," he did become a "regular fellow" in his own eyes and in the eyes of his classmates. He accordingly had no further need to call attention to himself by rudeness and bullying. His energy was no longer pent up in inner conflict between the kind of boy he was and the kind of boy he wanted to be.

A good deal of time was spent on this one boy. But it would have taken more to reclaim a juvenile delinquent, and there would have been far less chance of success.

The boy's homeroom and English teacher was the central figure in this guidance procedure. She was the first to note the change in Jim's behavior and to ask, "Why?" She accepted his explanation of his poor school work and tactfully suggested that the doctor might help him to find out why he was tired all the time. She kept in touch with the nurse and principal, who reported new developments to her. As a classroom teacher, she gave Jim support in his renewed efforts to do better school work. She also sympathetically interpreted the boy's behavior to his other teachers and helped them to reinforce Jim's endeavor to "make the grade." By this concerted action pivoting around the homeroom teacher, Jim's rehabilitation was accomplished.

✓ Popular Programs for Homeroom Activities ✓

By far the most vital homeroom program is that which develops cooperatively. Before the first meeting the teacher should talk with individual student leaders and help them to develop their best ideas for the use of homeroom time. Then the question, "How can we make the best use of our homeroom period this year?" may be discussed by the group as a whole.

If the group has been together before, they may begin with a carefully prepared, interesting summary of their previous accomplishments. A discussion of their most successful periods and why they were of value is a good introduction to planning for the coming year. As students suggest activities to be included in the new plan of work, a secretary should write the proposals on the board. Then the group can evaluate each suggestion. At the end of the meeting, a committee may be chosen to incorporate the suggested activities into a tentative plan of work to be presented to the group at their next meeting.

As a member of the group, the teacher should feel free to make suggestions. To give him background for doing so is the purpose of the foregoing detailed descriptions of activities and of the following list of programs that have been popular:

Stories of experiences which members of the class have had. This is a good way to become acquainted and is especially interesting if members of the class have been in foreign countries or have had work experiences. Talks by individual students on their hobbies serve a similar purpose. Several having the same hobby may get together and each present one phase of it. For example, several in one homeroom were interested in stamp collecting. One talked on the "purpose of collecting stamps"; another, on "stamps as a business"; the next, on "how I became interested in stamp collecting"; and

the last showed and discussed briefly a few rare and beautiful stamps from his collection.

Orientation tours through the school or campus.

Reviews and discussions of motion pictures.

Reviews and discussions of radio programs.

A series of career conferences bringing in outside speakers, among them recent graduates or former students who have dropped out of school and are willing to recount their experiences in getting and holding jobs.

A description of opportunities in trade schools.

Exhibits that crystallize the thought and study of a number of homeroom meetings.

An "amateur hour."

An exchange of programs with other homerooms.

Preparation for an assembly program.

A "Professor Quiz" program with questions about the school or current topics.

An open house for parents.

A discussion of home and family relations by a panel of parents and adolescents.

Interest groups—travel, drama, etc.,—whose members report to the class the most interesting parts of their small group meetings.

Leisure-interest groups, presenting actual opportunities to develop or pursue an interest in recreational reading, art exhibits, museums, music, arts and crafts, sports and games.

An evaluation of commercial amusements.

Self-rating on qualities of importance for vocational success, these ratings not to be handed in.

Dramatizations of correct social usage; for instance, introductions, social conversation.

Demonstrations on how to be well groomed and attractively dressed.

Work on projects that will improve the school or community.

A Hallowe'en program demonstrating how to have fun without being destructive.

The reading of a Christmas story.

Preparation for attending a concert together.

Discussion of the reasons why students get poor grades.

Discussion of national and world conditions of current interest and importance, such as strikes and the atom bomb.

In general, the favorite programs are those in which the students are active and the subjects have reference to the world they live in and their personal development.

Although each homeroom should develop its own program, a central committee on homeroom activities may aid the inexperienced teachers by preparing an outline of suggested topics and procedures. The following outline was prepared by a committee of Westwood Junior-Senior High School, New Jersey.

I. BASIC ACTIVITIES

A. Seventh Grade—*Orientation to High School*

1. Objectives of homeroom and purpose of departmental organization.
2. Orientation to school routine—review during October.
 - a. Study hall procedure—fire drill, library, absence.
 - b. Conduct in cafeteria, halls, assembly.
 - c. School activities—clubs, athletics of interest.
3. How to study.
4. Leisure time, hobbies, places of interest.
5. Parliamentary training.
6. Health habits, personality, and study of personal qualifications for specific occupations.
7. How can a junior high school student improve his community—his state, his nation—through citizenship?

B. Eighth Grade—*Prevocational*

1. Consider requirements of the various occupational classifications. See Census divisions in Kitson, *I Find My Vocation*.
2. What makes a successful person?
3. Biographical reports on successful people in various fields.
4. How to apply for part-time or summer work.
5. Thrift.
6. Talks by local people on occupations.
7. How to use and enjoy the public and school libraries.

8. Curriculum choice and its implications—study course requirements. Try to enlist parent cooperation in planning and encourage parents to come up for conferences.
9. Qualifications for college entrance or other schools.
- C. Ninth Grade—*Articulation with Senior High School, Orientation of New Students*
 1. Preparation for homeroom officers.
 2. Welcome new students and help them.
 3. Parliamentary training.
 4. Preparation for freshman dance. Set standards, discuss details of correct and courteous behavior on dance floor. Evaluate dance.
 5. Reconsider choice of course of study.
 6. Individual conferences—particularly on course of study. Plans.
 7. How to study.
 8. Use of leisure time.
 9. Orientation to school routine, buildings, and traditions. See Item 2 under seventh grade.
- D. Tenth Grade—*Rethinking Attitudes—Toward Home, School, Vocations, Community. Discussion of Values, Standards, and Human Relationships*
 1. Learning to get along with people.
 - a. At home—misunderstandings at home. Nature of problems faced at home.
 - b. At school—nature of problems. How best met.
 - c. With friends—types of friends you like to have. What do you value in a friend? How much should a friend expect of you? You of him?
 2. Companionship—Why necessary? Advantages? Disadvantages?
 3. Independence—How much should you have? In what things should you have more independence? Why? In what things less? Why?
 4. Change of vocational choice. (Note items suggested under eighth and twelfth grades.)
 5. Improving one's self-evaluation—types of conduct.
 6. Improving school. Place of school in helping solve problems. How much should the school do? How much should you expect from the school? What does the school need?
 7. Chief problems of youth today. Our changing world and the effect of changes on problems of youth.

8. Need of active parental interest in problems of youth and in the school. How increase parental interest? Follow out some of the student suggestions if possible.
9. Current events—forums.
- E. Eleventh Grade—*Provisional Choice of Vocation and School or College. Continue Consideration of Standards and Values and Problems of Youth as Approached in Tenth Grade*
 1. The process of trying to narrow down choices. Encourage more serious reading. Reports on biographies and vocational articles.
 - a. Student should consider every important element in the situation before making a vocational choice. He should make a sort of self- and job analysis after investigating all of those in which he has an interest.
 - b. Reports on occupations, discussion of advantages and disadvantages of various occupations.
 - c. Use of college catalogues and occupational books and pamphlets from library and guidance office.
 2. Individual conferences.
 3. Draw on preceding years for suggestions for activities. Note suggestions of vocations under eighth grade.
 4. Current events—forums.
- F. Twelfth Grade—*Articulation to Life after High School—to College, to School, to Business, etc.*
 1. Factors involved in selecting one's school or college. Need for additional training.
 2. What does business expect of the high school graduate? What may the high school graduate expect from business?
 3. Important factors involved in getting and keeping a job.
 4. Are you ready for college? College goals?
 5. Does your education stop if you don't go on to another school?
 6. How to study in college or adult classes.
 7. Problems to be met in another school—in business.
 8. Leisure time and how to use it. Hobbies.
 9. Problems of student not going to school beyond high school.
 10.
 - a. Opportunities for part-time education, neighboring schools.
 - b. Ways and means of self-education after high school: libraries, the radio, press, etc.
 11. Current events—forums.

When subjects of homeroom discussions are not fresh, vital, and interesting, the pupils are bored and have little desire to make the program a success. However, the same material can be handled in many different ways. For example, in a school in which lesson outlines were sent to the homeroom teachers, there was one period on courtesy. In one class the teacher merely read the outline, expanding it here and there. She made no attempt to get the pupils' point of view. Although the period was supposed to be spent in teaching courtesy, the teacher herself showed no consideration for the pupils. They laughed sarcastically at one another; all during the period their attention was at a low ebb. Another teacher handled the same program with a humorous approach that the pupils appreciated. A third teacher used the outline as a springboard for individual pupil expression. Good humor permeated the period. Though never didactic, the teacher found many opportunities to make helpful suggestions to individual pupils. A fourth teacher asked the pupils in her class to think of discourteous behavior that was not included in the mimeographed material. Bad temper and lack of consideration for others in the family were suggested as more serious than any of the items on the prepared list. These comments broadened into a discussion of problems of family relationships.

In the first class the teacher exerted an autocratic type of leadership; in the second, the leadership was still essentially autocratic but mitigated by a sense of humor. In the third and fourth homerooms, there was a truly shared experience. Teachers and pupils were seeking light on the subject together.

These are among the most common objections which students make to homeroom programs:

1. The same topics are repeated grade after grade: "It's the same old stuff."
2. The homeroom periods are conducted by formal classroom methods.
3. The teacher does not try to get into the students' world and see things from their point of view.

4. Too many topics are touched on in rapid succession, all superficially.

- 5. The programs are not developed and evaluated cooperatively by the students and the teacher.

It is evident from the reactions of many pupils and teachers that the formal, preachy type of character and courtesy education must be replaced by homeroom programs in which all those present not only discuss but practice such desirable qualities as consideration for others, responsibility, and sincerity. As Fenelon said, "If virtue offer itself to a child under a melancholy and constrained aspect, if liberty and license present themselves under an agreeable form, all is lost, your labor is in vain."

✓ The Homeroom as a Part of the School ✓

The homeroom is a central motif in the whole pattern of school activities. Representatives from each homeroom report for their group at student council meetings and bring back the council's decisions and points of view. Homerooms frequently stage assemblies for the school; organize support for school and community drives; publicize the extraclass program. When some important school policy or project requires student thought and action, it can be handled through the homeroom organization. Small organized units are essential to the democratic development of school-wide projects.

The classrooms can cooperate closely with the homeroom. If possible, the homeroom teacher has his students scheduled in one or more of his subject-matter classes. All subject teachers can cooperate closely with the homeroom teachers of their students, exchanging information and suggestions for the guidance of individual students.

Like a home, a homeroom should have "atmosphere." One of the first homeroom projects may be to make the room more attractive. Thereafter a standing committee can be responsible for the appearance of the room.

The following features greatly facilitate homeroom activi-

ties: movable chairs and tables, a bulletin board, a bookcase, a locked file in which the teacher can keep student personnel records, a students' file for reference material and for records and evaluation of their activities, and, if possible, a built-in interviewing room.

✓ The Discussion Method in Homeroom Periods ✓

The discussion method is the core of the informal homeroom or classroom period. Yet few teachers know how to conduct a first-rate discussion. By studying the methods of able radio discussion leaders and by applying the following suggestions, one may gain expertness in discussion:

1. *Choose suitable topics for discussion.* The question should have recognized importance to the group, and there should be a genuine difference of opinion about it. Though it is desirable to choose a question that requires action or decision, discussion may be used to clarify certain issues even though no immediate action can be taken. This is often the case with adolescent problems involving a philosophy of life or a conflict between individual desires and social demands. In some instances the discussion may lead to the decision that nothing can be done about the problem at present.

Questions for discussion may be selected in various ways. A problem may arise spontaneously in the general class discussion; time may then be given immediately to its solution, or it may be deferred to another period. A question may be selected from among those anonymously contributed to a question box. The following, for example, were submitted by a sophomore high school class:

How can one make friends?

Who has the most influence upon you, your parents or your friends?

Are girls or boys, as friends, the more beneficial to a girl in high school?

What would you do if your parents oppose your having boy friends?

Is a girl justified in disagreeing with her mother on a social

problem and should she try to prove her point although the question is distasteful to her mother?

Why are most parents more lenient and carefree in regard to their sons' characters than in regard to the character of their daughters?

When alone with a fellow, upon what subjects should a girl make conversation?

Is it right to discuss sex problems with boy friends?

Please explain frankly why older people object to young folks kissing and petting.

Should a girl smoke when she is with her crowd?

What amusements besides reading can a girl find who is supervised very strictly?

What qualities must a girl possess to become a good business woman?

When a girl likes several vocations, but not one more than others, how can she choose a vocation?

Do you think that all girls who have the required credits and can afford it should go to college?

If it is a school-wide problem, the suggestion that it be discussed in the homerooms may come from the student council or a faculty-student committee. Many adolescent problems are effectively introduced, as already suggested, by the reading of a case history or description of a real life situation, or by the showing of an excerpt from a motion picture.

2. *Encourage students to state the question* in their own words so that it is understood by all.

3. *Know the individuals* in the group so that each may be asked to contribute his special knowledge and experience. Certain members may be asked to come prepared to present facts or to give their experience relating to some phase of the problem and to suggest a solution.

4. Be intensely sensitive to the individuals in the group. For example, if one member looks as though he wanted to contribute to the discussion but is too shy to speak up, the leader should ask his opinion. He should encourage a member who has made a good point somewhat incoherently to clarify it. The leader should be alert and creative: alert to find something of worth in each person's comments, to see its

relation to the main focus of the discussion, to sense the contribution every member of the group can make; creative in finding and relating what is significant in all that has been said and in summarizing the best thinking of the group. To be accepted, the leader must be interested in the group and show that he understands, and is sympathetic with, their plans.

5. *Keep the main thought moving forward.* The leader guides but does not control the thinking of the group. This occasionally requires questions on the part of the leader that draw the discussion back to the main point or open up a new aspect of the subject. The skillful leader from time to time summarizes the members' points in a pattern of thought that has a focus and significance beyond the scattered ideas contributed. He integrates conflicting points of view. Yet he does not impose his own point of view. He tries to represent accurately the thinking of the group.

6. *See that useful records are made for future groups.* Two of the most common faults of discussion leaders are (a) that they do too much of the planning, take too much of the responsibility, make too many of the decisions; and (b) that they go too fast and do not take time for exploring new leads. As a result the discussion is superficial, important considerations are neglected, or plans are hastily made.

Members as well as leaders have a responsibility for the success of a group discussion. Each member should "carry the ball" forward. This he can do by building on what has been said and making his new point briefly. Too often members are so busy formulating what they are going to say next that they fail to listen and learn.

Even more difficult than leading a discussion is the task of training student chairmen. Each period in which a student leader serves as chairman offers teaching opportunities. With a poor chairman, a homeroom will quickly degenerate into an undisciplined mob instead of developing into a thinking group. When the student chairman is in charge, the teacher must be tactful, or else his suggestions will be resented. Following is an example, in one homeroom when everyone was talking at once:

TEACHER: Mr. Chairman, may I ask a question? How many in this group have been in clubs before? (Many raised their hands.) Then you know when we elect a chairman, we give him power to conduct the meeting properly. What do we owe our chairman?

PUPIL: Respect.

TEACHER: Yes, and we give up our right to talk any time we want to. So hold in your enthusiasm and wait to be recognized. Then it's up to the chairman to play fair. He must call on each of you in turn.

During the period, whenever the students forgot this principle, the teacher reminded them of it, until, by the end of the period, they were really following good procedure. By giving her interpretation and suggestions when the need arose, the teacher was training both chairmen and members in good discussion methods.

✓ Committee Work in the Homeroom Group ✓

Committees are an important part of the homeroom organization. They give a large number of pupils opportunity to learn to work together. They furnish congenial groups for shy students inexperienced in group participation. Unless each committee has a real job to do, however, these values will not be realized. Purposeless committees may do more harm than good. Among the homeroom committees that have functioned effectively are those in charge of social events, bulletin board, current events including student banking, various drives, scholarship, room decoration, special interests, and program. These small groups provide practice in committee work—a technic in which adult groups are often so deficient. Anyone who has endured the futility of many committee meetings and squirmed during aimless discussions is convinced of the need for improvement in committee technic.

Effective committee work uses the discussion technic already described. Most students have to learn by experience how to be a real chairman, not a boss or a nonentity. The

following suggestions will be helpful to students who want to learn committee work:

1. Choose a committee on two bases—the individual's ability to contribute to the committee's work, and his need for the experience.
2. Find a convenient time and place for meeting.
3. State clearly the purpose for which the committee was formed and outline steps to be taken.
4. Follow good discussion procedure.
5. Spread responsibility so that one or two committee members do not do all the work.

When new committees are appointed, a brief class discussion will bring to mind the points just listed. If the newly formed committees seem at a loss to know what to do, the teacher can assist, as in the following record of part of a homeroom period:

Walter, as program chairman, explained the idea for the program.

HOMEROOM PRESIDENT: Are there any volunteers?

TEACHER: Mr. Chairman, it's not easy to volunteer because it seems like bragging and it's not good to brag about what you can do. I suggest a list be posted on the bulletin board and the members of the class sign up for what they wish to do. We might have suggestions now for running committee meetings. What are some? (Pupils made suggestions.) The chairman of each committee should hand in his notes to the homeroom president. What can those not on committees do?

PUPIL: They can read.

TEACHER: All right, browse about. Now, Mr. Chairman, where shall the committees meet? Shouldn't they be as far apart as possible? (The chairman assigned places to each committee, and the pupils, after signing under the committee of their choice, took their places.)

The teacher made these suggestions only after giving the pupils a chance to take the responsibility themselves. Her recognition of the reasons why some pupils do not volunteer for committee work showed her sensitivity to the way individual pupils were feeling.

With an inexperienced group the teacher may use the entire homeroom period as a demonstration of the way a committee may work. This was done in a seventh grade homeroom:

TEACHER: Older classes know how to conduct committee meetings. We had better take a period to learn how to do it well. Then you will not waste time when you break up into your committees at the end of the period. I will help you to learn how a program committee works. First there must be a plan that tells: When? Where? Who will take part? Who is to come? What will each member do? (These suggestions, partly formulated by the group, were written on the board by the secretary.) Now what's first?

CLASS: When?

PUPIL: I think we ought to invite Mr. H—— to the program.

TEACHER: Are we talking about who's coming? No, only about *when* it will be held.

There was general discussion on this question. The chairman recognized the same speakers over and over again.

TEACHER (to chairman): Should you call only on your friends? Give everyone a chance. (An argument about the date arose and the orderly suggestions turned into bickering.)

TEACHER: What should we be talking about?

CLASS: When?

A motion was made and seconded to give the program on October 14. The class unanimously decided to have the program on this date.

TEACHER: That's one thing off the list. Now what is next?

CLASS: Where?

TEACHER: I'm going to keep still and see whether you can do this all by yourselves.

The class suggested the auditorium, the social room, and the roof. These suggestions were written on the board and the advantages and disadvantages of each were discussed. The motion was made to vote on the place. Only the "aye" votes were heard.

TEACHER: Take time for the "nays."

The vote was properly taken and the social room was chosen.

TEACHER: That was nicely done. Now, who will take part?

A discussion followed on the question of compulsory versus volunteer participation. Five pupils demanded the floor at once. The chairman seemed at a loss as to whom to recognize.

TEACHER (to chairman): Why don't you call on someone who hasn't had a chance to speak thus far?

PUPIL: I don't think participation should be compulsory. You wouldn't put a child in the water before he could swim. Stage fright is somewhat like that.

Another pupil gave an example of stage fright.

TEACHER: There's a difference, though, between a big performance such as Ralph described and a small private program like ours.

Finally a motion was made and carried to choose the performers on a volunteer basis.

TEACHER: The period is up, but I'm sure the committee can go ahead in the same way to answer the other two questions. They will report to you next time.

This teacher succeeded in showing the class how a committee needs to have a plan and to think in an orderly way. She allowed them to get off the point occasionally so that they would see for themselves the difference between a chaotic and an orderly progression of thought. Incidentally, she helped the chairman to improve his technic. As soon as she thought they had learned how to discuss a point, she put the responsibility on them and commended their success. As a result of her guidance, the group ended the period with a feeling of satisfaction in the progress they had made toward planning the program.

✓ Evaluation of the Homeroom Period ✓

Every homeroom teacher should help his students to evaluate their periods and to see the progress they have made. Otherwise they will have a sense of futility and wasted time. McKown³ suggests that the pupils discuss informally for a few minutes whether or not a given program was free from disorder, showed signs of careful planning, had suitable member participation, had an objective, achieved that objective, had the parts properly assigned, was well timed, brought out new talent, showed sincerity, was too solemn and serious, held

³ Harry C. McKown, *Home Room Guidance*, pp. 146-153, 188-201. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1934.

the attention of the entire group, justified the effort expended, showed progress over previous programs, and was worthy of assembly presentation. Without doubt, such a discussion serves as a stimulus for the improvement of future programs. It is also valuable in developing students' ability to take criticism gracefully and to profit by it.

The teacher, too, should evaluate the homeroom as a whole. Criteria for this evaluation are to be derived from the objectives set up by the particular group. However, they will usually include the following:

1. Each member should have an opportunity to contribute to the success of homeroom projects and gain satisfaction therefrom.

2. Each member should receive help in setting and reaching his own personal goals.

3. The homeroom discussions should clarify school problems and lead to their solution.

4. The homeroom experiences should result in each member's growth in initiative; in ability to fulfill the responsibilities he accepts, to get satisfaction from the success of the group, and to get along with others; each should gain a sense of worth and "belongingness."

5. The projects undertaken should be worth while, and should bind the whole group together.

6. The atmosphere should be informal enough to allow individual growth along the lines mentioned, but not so informal as to interfere with orderly accomplishment of group business.

If the evaluation shows much to be desired, pupils and teachers should feel challenged rather than discouraged. Everyone can learn from experience. Evaluation helps one to recognize mistakes that would stand in the way of future success.

Whether the period is long or short, whether the contact with the group is for one year or more, the present quality of most group work can be improved. Perhaps the most functional criterion for the homeroom teacher to apply is this: What learning is going on in this group; what changes are taking place in the students?

✧ Conclusion ✧

Effective guidance through a homeroom or similar group does not "just happen." Certain conditions are necessary. The values desired are most likely to be realized when:

1. Teachers and other leaders are aware of the individual development that may take place through group experience: shy persons grouped with a few congenial classmates learn to contribute to the group and feel at ease; individuals who are too aggressive learn that they get more satisfaction from being friendly and considerate of others; children from broken homes gain a sense of belonging in their group. The student is the "subject matter" in this type of group.
2. A democratic atmosphere prevails.
3. The leader learns the technics of working with informal groups: discussion method, committee work, guidance by means of group activities.
4. The leader knows the individuals in his group: their needs, backgrounds, previous experiences, abilities, interests.
5. The leader is ingenious in providing the experiences that individuals need.

As one stage of the transition from departmentalization to a core curriculum or general education program, the homeroom and similar forms of guidance through groups have served a useful purpose. In trying to do right by their homeroom groups, a large number of teachers have come to know their students as persons and have gained skill in group work.

The homeroom program is most likely to be successful if teachers and students feel the need for it; if only as much time is scheduled for it as can be used to good advantage; if the homeroom teacher stays with the same group three or four years; if he has the students in at least one of his subject classes; if he is given help in improving the quality of his counseling and group work.

VI

GUIDANCE IN STUDENT ACTIVITIES

"Mr. B——, will you sponsor the photography club this year?" When he answers "Yes," Mr. B—— takes on one more guidance responsibility. Already he is aware of the guidance aspects of his role as classroom and homeroom teacher. Now he must learn to make his club an experience that helps his students to grow up intellectually, socially, and emotionally.

Fortunately, in his homeroom, he has gained practice in many phases of group work. He has learned to make elections an educational experience, to conduct group discussions, and to help students work together in committees. Most important of all, he has formed the habit of observing the interactions of members of his group and of using the activity itself to serve individual needs. Nevertheless, Mr. B——wishes that he knew more about group work. He feels secure in his skill in photography but somewhat insecure in his ability to use this activity to help the members develop better human relations.

It is common in schools and colleges for three-fourths or less of the faculty members to spend from three to five hours a week in extraclass activities. For this service they rarely receive additional remuneration, and in less than a fourth of the schools are their hours of instruction reduced. For the most part, they give this service not because it improves their professional status (although it usually does), but because they enjoy the informal contacts with eager adolescents and feel that this work contributes to their own growth as well as

to the social and emotional development of their students.

Many teachers who have volunteered or have been requested to add the sponsoring of a student activity to their repertory of professional technics, feel as Mr. B—— did. They want to understand more clearly the nature of group work and its values to the students,¹ and they want information about some procedures that have been used successfully.

✓ The Nature and Values of Student Group Work ✓

Group work should have something of the quality that Walter Pater described in his essay on Leonardo da Vinci: "What he cared for most and at all times was that which could give the highest quality to our moments as they pass . . . filling the common ways of life with the reflection of some far-off brightness."

Group work, at its best, is an experience in living together in which desirable changes take place in the individual members and progress is made toward achieving the worthy goals of the group. It requires a leader who is active but not dominating. Instead of closely directing their activities or standing passively by and letting the group do just as they please, he helps them to develop their best ideas. Because he is sensitive to each member, he is able to make the activity serve their personal needs.

If the leader has clearly in mind the possible values of the group activities he is sponsoring, he will be more likely to realize them. From experiences in his group the members may gain many personal values: a sense of worth and of being of service, a feeling of "belonging," increased self-confidence that arises out of successful activity, willingness to share responsibility for group enterprises, improved scholarship if participation is not excessive, development of special interests and abilities, social skills, and standards for the use of leisure time. In addition to these personal values, the group activity may make a contribution to school and community life.

¹ For a more detailed treatment see Ruth Strang, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*, Chap. I. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946.

✓ Effective Procedures for Student Group Work ✓

Having clearly in mind the "why" of student activities, the sponsor naturally wants to know "how." He will meet problems in forming groups and publicizing the club program, getting acquainted with the members and with the group as an entity, conducting meetings, getting "results," and counseling individuals. The following suggestions and illustrations of procedures, supplementing those given in the previous chapter, will help sponsors achieve the values of student activities.

Get Your Group. Obviously this is the first step. It involves forming new groups and recruiting members who need the experiences a given group can offer them. A school-wide reorganization of the student activities program may be indicated by a check list of preferred activities filled out by all the students or by a more thorough survey of their twenty-four hour schedules. Frequently a few students get together and decide they want to organize a new club. Then they look for a sponsor and go through the procedure of registering the club with the person serving as director of student activities.

Among the perennially popular student activities are:

Athletic clubs: Popular among these is the hiking club. Walking is one of the most healthful and inexpensive activities; it requires a minimum of equipment; going to unexplored places, and especially camping out overnight, satisfy students' desire for adventure.

Recreation clubs: In these clubs, which use the recreational facilities of the community, boys and girls may learn to engage in sports and games that they can pursue after they leave school. The recreation club also helps them to make the transition from childish games to the adult type of healthful outdoor recreation.

Dramatic clubs: Dramatic organizations vie in popularity with athletic clubs. The dramatic club offers experience in interpreting plays and writing short sketches, leads to a better

understanding of this field of literature, and gives recognition to individual students. It furthers personality development by helping students to overcome self-consciousness through improving enunciation, voice, and diction; increasing poise and self-control; and building habits of cooperation in group enterprises.

The marionette club has recently gained in popularity. It has many of the values of the dramatic club plus somewhat greater possibilities for the development of skill in arts and crafts.

Religious and social welfare clubs: This type of club is prevalent in schools and colleges as well as in most communities. The "Y," "Hi Y," Girl Reserves, Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls are more highly organized than are local school clubs. They aim to develop qualities of citizenship, hobbies and other worth-while leisure activities, spiritual and social values, health, and leadership. They emphasize service as well as personal development. They attract boys and girls from ten to eighteen years of age.

Subject-matter clubs: Literary societies were one of the first extraclassroom activities to appear in schools and colleges. At present they take a more specific form, such as a poetry club or journalism club. The poetry club increases the students' appreciation of poetry, fosters a permanent interest in it, familiarizes members with the best poets and their works, and often creates an interest in writing poetry.

A Latin club or modern foreign language club profits by its members' range of proficiency in the language. The more skilled and experienced set concrete standards of performance for the novitiates, who will gradually progress toward the higher levels of achievement. These clubs supplement class work by giving additional opportunities for the use of the language in conversation and in programs and by making possible a fuller study of its historical and cultural background and of the people who speak it. The relationship of the language to further study in medicine, engineering, and other occupations is frequently discussed in foreign language clubs.

Home economics clubs are very popular in some schools.

They usually have a social aim that is realized through planning and participating in social events. They entertain other organizations in the school, and their members sometimes serve as hostesses for faculty and student affairs. Through these activities girls learn how to dress, act, and entertain at a variety of simple social events. These clubs also include educational content not covered in the class period and provide opportunities for the discussion of the vocational aspects of the subject. They also offer many opportunities for the development of qualities of leadership and cooperation.

A health club sometimes grows out of the interest of a class in biology or hygiene. In one case, students in a class in community hygiene became so interested in the health practices and superstitions of ancient peoples and in present-day food problems and fads that they wished to form a club in which they could discuss these subjects at length and form a better basis for evaluating radio talks and advertisements.

The commercial club has often provided social education for girls handicapped vocationally by poor social backgrounds. In this type of club, girls have learned to dress more appropriately and attractively and to meet people graciously, as well as to be more intelligent about commercial work.

The majority of subject-matter clubs have social features in addition to their more specialized content. These range from informal half hours immediately following the meetings to carefully planned dinners and parties. The subject-matter clubs may help to meet a need in American life, namely, an informal, altogether pleasant social discussion of worth-while subjects. If this aim is to be realized, the subject-matter clubs should guard against devoting their interest exclusively to programs and parties. They should rather make each meeting a social event in which friends gather together to talk about poetry, history, science, art, or other subjects of cultural or practical value.

Public speaking clubs: The interest in declamation and debate has decreased since the days of Patrick Henry or Daniel Webster. The philosophy of group discussion is perhaps responsible for the decline of competitive speaking and the rise of "reasoning together." Public speaking may have

a more useful aim than the defeat of one side, namely, an integration of conflicting points of view. Although formal debates are still held, and still have value in developing poise and skill in public speaking on the part of a limited number of students, this type of activity seems inferior in many ways to the less formal group discussion of questions of vital interest.

Publications: The educational value of school papers, yearbooks, and handbooks is not fully appreciated at the present time. Among the potential values to the student are training in journalism and the effective use of English; furnishing information about the school; promoting friendships; developing financial and literary abilities; and giving recognition for special achievements. Publications may also serve the school by unifying it, influencing public opinion, encouraging desirable enterprises, interpreting the school to the community and to other schools, and recording school history. The annual is too often more concerned with trivial tangents of school life than with the fundamental educational contributions of the year.

Assembly programs: Assembly programs frequently grow out of club and homeroom activities. When this is the case, they represent a natural sequence of activities, rather than disorganizing special events. Appearance before the school as a whole motivates a smaller group to greater effort.

The assembly is a period for social education, inspiration, unification of school interests, instruction, and enjoyment. It offers opportunities for the development of proper audience behavior, as well as of skill in speaking and acting before a large group.

A series of race-relationship programs was developed by Du Bois. They were usually dramatic in form. For example, in an Italian program the curtain went up on an Italian peasant scene, the properties for which were brought from the homes of the Italian students. Groups sang parts of Italian operas and performed Italian dances. Several students talked together informally on the stage about the lives and works of famous characters and about Italian history and the present conditions in Italy. The audience participated in

the program by learning to sing one representative song. This type of program offers possibilities for variety, for originality, for searching out source material, and for correlation with school subjects. It shows how much alike we all are.

Another successful type of program given in some schools is a series of demonstrations showing the contributions of various subjects. The science group, for example, perform experiments and discuss their present-day implications. The physical education classes demonstrate the sports, games, and dances they have learned in the physical education period. A program of this kind has educational and vocational guidance value.

Student participation in government: Approximately two-thirds of the high schools recently surveyed have some plan for student participation in government. This type of organization has recently become known as community government. Skillfully handled, this activity may greatly improve school conditions. It should grow out of the interest and understanding of students and faculty. In one large city high school, the students in English classes wrote on the "pros" and "cons" of community government, and discussed them. Then they held debates in classes and in assembly that showed school opinion was heartily in favor of it. When nothing further was done, a delegation of students went to the principal to request that steps be taken. He told them to go ahead and work out a constitution. This they did, and the community government in that school subsequently became a fine influence in school life.

A representative form of government, such as the one illustrated by Figure 8, has proved satisfactory in many schools. Homerooms send representatives to the student council, which in turn appoints committees for special duties.

Other schools favor the commission form of government, in which committees constitute the council. Either form of organization provides educative experiences for a large number of students.

Clubs for all: It is a pleasure to be a club sponsor in a well-organized student activities program. At Shorewood High School, Wisconsin, time is provided for every activity, and

activities are created in response to student interests and needs.

An activity time chart lists the groups that meet from 8:10 to 9:05 in the daily activity hour for the seventh and eighth grades, from 11:00 to 12:00 in the activity period for the ninth to twelfth grades, the noon-hour activities, the after-

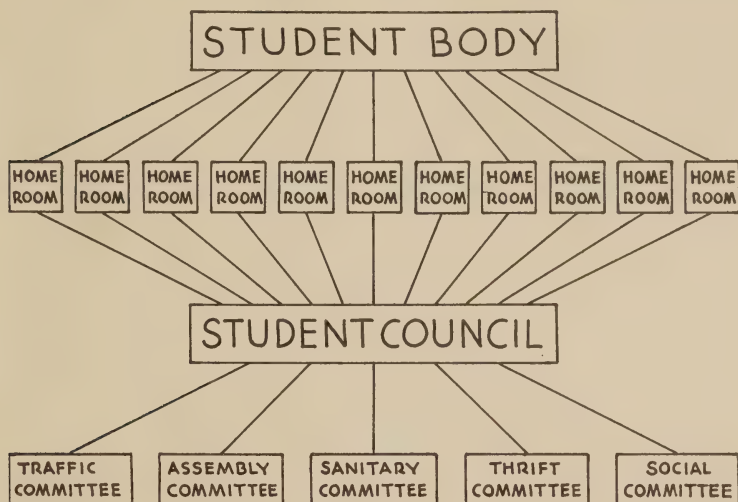


FIG. 8.—REPRESENTATIVE FORM OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION
IN GOVERNMENT

school activities, and the evening activities. Then follows a page for each activity, giving information on these items:

Name of activity.

Name of sponsor.

Regular meetings per month.

Period of day activity meets.

Days of month activity meets.

Number of meetings per month.

Length in hours of each meeting.

Special meetings per month.

Summary of time needed.

Regular meetings per month.

Special meetings per month.

For officers and special committees.

For rest of membership.

Saturday morning rehearsals.

Hours per month expected for homework or practice.

Titles and number of principals (e.g., editor-in-chief).

Clarifying or supplementary statement.

Thus serious conflicts are avoided and the pupils' initial selection of activities is guided.

"Every student a club member" is not an altogether desirable goal. It is possible that participation in extracurricular activities may crowd out other more valuable experiences. For example, at a certain time in a student's career, studying history assiduously might be more profitable than being chairman of the junior prom committee.

Clubs should not have a closed membership. If seventy students wish to belong to a certain club, additional sections should be formed to meet this demand. If limitation of membership is necessary it should be on a natural rather than an artificial or arbitrary basis. The tryout method is often used to select membership in dramatic clubs. In one school the best-qualified students joined Dramatic Club A, the next best B, and the others C. Thus they formed somewhat homogeneous groups on the basis of initial dramatic ability.

Publicize the program: A club may be publicized in various ways. Announcements in homerooms reinforce the mimeographed sheets that give the name of each club, its eligibility rules, the time and place of its meeting, and a brief description of its activities. Each club may have an opportunity to present its program in assembly, or in an "activity fair" where each organization has a booth. Clubs may have "open meetings" to which they invite any students who wish to attend. Club news may be published in the handbook and the school paper or posted on bulletin boards. It is most important, however, that each student plan his extraclass activities with his counselor as part of his total educational program.

There are always some students who seem not to meet the qualifications of any club. From the standpoint of the other

students, these are "the undesirables." They are not invited into the sororities and fraternities. Yet they need the kind of education that the social curriculum gives. The teacher can observe such students with a view to discovering some latent ability that can then be called to the attention of a particular club. If a student's unpopularity is caused by some specific habit or condition, steps may be taken to overcome the difficulty.

Equipment the sponsor needs for counseling students about their social curriculum may be summarized under the following headings:

1. Knowledge of the students.
 - a. Their previous leadership and club experiences.
 - b. Their present social activities in and out of school.
 - c. Their daily schedules, including hours spent in home duties, study, and other activities.
 - d. Their health, abilities, interests, and needs.
2. Knowledge of the clubs.
 - a. The standards and contributions of each.
 - b. The personality of the sponsors.
 - c. The membership.

With this information the sponsor is more likely to get the right student into the right group.

Know Your Group. A sponsor does not really know his group until he can answer the following questions: what is the group atmosphere? Is it repressed, the leader actively and authoritatively directing and the members obeying his orders? Or is it an atmosphere of pleasure, freedom within definitely set limits, and constructive efficiency?

What are the structural characteristics of the group: How many members are there? What type of students are they? What is the relative importance of individual members and sub-groups? Is the inner organization elastic? Does one member become prominent while he has a particular job to do and then give the center of the stage to someone else who has a special contribution to make? Is the club run by the usual group of officers or a board of directors or committee, or do

all the members share directly in making policies? Is it a closely knit group in which members are interdependent or a highly individualistic group in which the members have little influence on one another? Are there hostilities that make for disintegration, or respect and affection that bind the members together? Is it possible for members to work individually and yet be unified by a goal toward which they are all striving?

What are the dynamics of the group? Toward what goals are they working? The goal may be very definite, such as giving a play, making clothing for destitute children, baking cookies for a parents' meeting. Or it may be much more vague and general, such as improving school spirit or having a good time. These goals are determined by the values held by the group. One group may value friendships, another service, another personal advantage. These values are translated into goals that direct the activities of the groups.

What is the place of the group in the life of its members? Do the members find attendance at the meetings burdensome because their days are already overcrowded and overorganized? Is the club the only chance the members have to have a good time with persons of their own age? How is the club related to other organizations? Do the members have a democratic experience in the club? Do they run wild in an outside-of-school group because they are allowed no initiative in their subject classes? It is necessary to remember that groups are interdependent just as persons are and that they overlap in membership. Thus one individual may be subjected at one time to a wide variety of group atmospheres and procedures.

What kind of persons does the group contain? Each member brings his individuality to the group in the form of interests, abilities, needs, and values. Widely different individuals are an advantage to a group if their diverse gifts are recognized and capitalized. Each individual contributes to, and in turn receives from, other members, individually and collectively.

Are the individual members getting the experiences they need? Does the activity involve skills that the student has

not already mastered? Does the activity supplement, but not supplant, other occupations of value to the student? Are physical strain, excessive fatigue, overstimulation avoided?

Provide Progression of Experience. A developmental sequence is as important here as is progression in courses in French and mathematics. Brown develops and illustrates this criterion admirably in her book, *Leadership Among High School Pupils*. This ladder of the extracurricular experiences of a typical student from the low tenth grade to the last term of high school illustrates an excellent progression:

L 10:

Membership in one or more clubs.
Committee assignment.

H 10:

Club office.
Minor position in class.

If the club office is that of president, then the girl is a member of the girls' league council and has contact with other girls' club presidents and with activities fostering other interests of girls. She is also a member of a league committee.

L 11:

Continued interest in clubs and league activities.

May elect journalism or dramatics and find interest in sports (more girls of this group evidenced interest in sports and dramatics in their junior year than in any previous semester).

H 11:

Appointment to a student body committee.
Class representative to the league council.
In charge of some important department for the league.
Club, dramatic, and sports activities continue.

L 12:

Continued interest in league activities.

New opportunities in class offices due to the increased social activities of the senior class.

If vice-principal or chairman of an important class committee, she will have charge of at least one social function. Probably chairman of an important study body committee.

H 12:

Student body officer, hence a member of the girls' league council.

Duties of student body office will prevent her from holding club or class offices but she will continue as a member of the club or clubs to which she belonged and will probably assist in class functions.²

Participation in the group life of the school should proceed, as in this representative case, in an ascending and ever-widening spiral throughout high school and college. A student should not be required or permitted to repeat year after year the same kind of extraclassroom activities. On the other hand, it is as poor pedagogy to precipitate a student into a social life for which he is totally unprepared as to allow him to take second-year French before he has gained a basic facility in the French language. The teacher, therefore, who has charge of some phase of the social program should know the special abilities, interests, and previous extracurricular experiences of the students. Only with this knowledge can he plan a program for each student that represents an advance over his previous achievement. Progression of experience may take the form either of new experiences in a familiar field or the extension of interests into a new field. For example, a boy might progress from a committee chairman to vice president of a science club. Or he might join an athletic club in addition to the science club. The former might be said to represent an advance in altitude and the latter, a gain in breadth.

Get Started. If a teacher has been made sponsor of a student activity, he has a challenging task. How should he go about it? Let us consider one activity: the student council.

First of all, he must schedule time for attending the council meetings and working with committees and individuals. Sponsorship of the student council is an important professional assignment and should be so regarded by the principal.

² Marion Brown, *Leadership Among High School Pupils*, pp. 117-118. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1933.

Second, the sponsor must be clear and sound in his ideas of what the student council should do and be. He should be guided by the following principles:

The purposes stated in the constitution should be the students' purposes—not those of the faculty members or administrators.

The candidates for office should not be limited to students who get good marks, behave themselves, and pay their dues. Holding an office often stimulates a student to work harder and behave better.

Participation in school government should be widespread, not limited to the small student council group. The sponsor should find a way of bringing every class or homeroom group into active participation. This may be done by teaching student council representatives from every homeroom, class, or club group to report so interestingly and to elicit suggestions so effectively that each constituent group is as actively interested in the government of the whole school as in the government of their own group.

The tasks undertaken by the students should seem worth while and important to them. The student council is not a police force working through a monitor system. It is an administrative body that formulates policy and gets worth-while jobs done.

The limits of student authority should be clearly indicated. Certain decisions they make with finality; others they must submit to the principal for approval. Much dissatisfaction is avoided when the allocation of authority is understood.

The sponsor should be genuinely sympathetic with the point of view of young people, believe in them, and give them the support they need. The ability of high school and college students to govern themselves is frequently underestimated. Again and again they have demonstrated their ability to select a task that needs to be done—improvement of lunchroom or study-hall conditions, for example—work out plans, and get good results. All they need is a consistent expression of confidence and suggestions at strategic points.

A good first meeting is the result of careful planning. It pays the sponsor to spend time with individual members dis-

cussing the qualifications of officers, the appointment of committees, and a program that is fun. There is no excuse for merely "marking time" at the first meeting. To do so sets a poor pace for future meetings.

Plan Activities with the Students. At their first meeting the members of a club might well plan together the goals to be attained and the methods by which they can be reached. This cooperative planning has the following values:

1. It helps the group to gain perspective and a sense of direction early in their series of meetings.
2. It makes the members more keenly aware of their stake in the success of the activity.
3. It encourages initiative and originality and increases interest.
4. It promotes the members' sociability and friendliness with their fellow students and with faculty members.
5. It helps the leader to meet the needs of the group more exactly and completely.

There are, of course, certain limitations to teacher-student planning. A balance must be maintained between planning and action; otherwise the members will have a feeling of futility, or "nothing accomplished, nothing done."

Planning is continuous. It extends over the lifetime of a club. An initial five-year plan, modified and elaborated from time to time, increases this sense of continuity over a period of years.

Use Group Discussion to Improve Activities. Student activities sometimes encounter difficulties, which can be better understood through group discussion. For example, in one high school the boys and girls were stirred up by the sorority-fraternity question. The school population was heterogeneous and did not mix well socially. Fraternities and sororities had become somewhat of a community nuisance. Agitation against them, however, seemed to have been stirred up by parents whose children had not been taken into them.

An edict had recently been issued by the Board of Education that high school students who refused to sign a pledge not to belong to out-of-school fraternities and sororities would

be prevented from holding school offices or playing on the teams. The students admitted that they had signed the pledge but had continued their membership in the outside organizations. They said, "We hate being forced into deceit."

The adult leader started the discussion by presenting a short mimeographed account of Michael Pupin's experience as an immigrant boy. After a brief discussion of the foreign boy's problem in making friends, the pupils began to relate the problem of making friends to their own outside-of-school groups. They said that cliques were inevitable with sororities and fraternities in power, that many boys and girls were left out, and that being left out was "tough on them." Some countered with the fact that there were school clubs and teams that any boy or girl could join; therefore they need not feel left out.

The leader gave the impression that he did not know all the answers. He, too, was groping for a solution. He showed respect for every pupil's ideas and made each feel that his comments were worthy of thoughtful consideration. Every contribution made by the leader or by a member was evaluated—not accepted without question or rejected blindly because of its source. No one dominated the discussion or was left out of it.

By summarizing on the blackboard the facts and theories presented, the leader clarified the issues as they developed in the course of the discussion. The following are excerpts from the discussion, illustrating the points of view as expressed by the pupils:

You can bring different races and creeds together in sports and school clubs, and classes, but not in social life.

You play games with colored boys and get to know them and like them, but it's different to dance with them.

We did try to get everyone into the Junior Dance; the committee worked hard, but only the same crowd came out.

In school all the dances are open to all the students and it's up to them to come, if they want to. . . .

Even though you didn't have sororities and fraternities, you'd still have cliques. It's a natural tendency. . . .

It's rather difficult for a dignified body like the Board of Education to reverse its decision; they have to stand on their dignity. . . .

Any intelligent person could draw up a good plan in five minutes.

A slightly longer segment of the discussion follows:

PUPIL: I think students should meet with the Board of Education and draw up a plan together. The trouble is that the Board has drawn up a plan, and the students have drawn up a plan, and they don't get together.

LEADER: What is it that the Board really objects to?

P.: The Greek letter. There are other social groups outside of school, in the Y's, for example, and no one objects to them.

P.: The Board feels the code the sororities and fraternities have drawn up is not in line with the American way; the elections are not democratic.

P.: The parents of kids that don't get in object. The Board was forced to action by these parents.

P.: I think we should have an inter-club council that includes other kinds of groups as well as sororities and fraternities. It should be a community affair.

P.: How could the regulations of the inter-club council be enforced? What is to prevent any club from withdrawing from the council? (Here we have in miniature the problem of a League of Nations.)

The pros and cons of sororities and fraternities shaped up and were written on the board as follows:

Good Effects

Membership results in better marks.
Gives members richer social experiences and a feeling of social acceptance.
Initiates community projects.
Draws out younger pupils.
Serves as nucleus for solution of school problems.
Develops group spirit and sportsmanship.

Bad Effects

Pupils left out feel rejected; also their parents.
Increase cliques.
Not democratic.
Some of the groups have been rather wild; need to be "cleaned up."

Suggestions for the solution of the problem were also summarized:

1. Introduce more clubs in school so that everyone can belong to a social group.
2. Decrease the prestige attached to belonging to fraternities.
3. Improve quality of sororities and fraternities: let them sponsor more service activities for the welfare of all.
4. Have a joint meeting with the Board of Education in which the students present a workable plan.
5. Create and give necessary power to an inter-club council that would consider problems and relationships of all groups in school and out of school. The council would make and enforce rules with the advice and consent of adult representatives.

This group discussion illustrates the process of guiding students to think constructively about a real problem. The discussion began where the students already were in their thinking and feeling and then skillfully opened up possible solutions. During the period the group showed a subtle change of feeling—a shift from hopelessness and aggrieved righteousness to a more hopeful and considerate attitude toward adults against whom they felt a grievance. They saw that adults wanted to work with them. This was education in finding an objective, reasonable method of solving an emotionally charged problem. Might it not have been a valuable experience for future statesmen whose task will be to settle international disputes without resorting to war?

In discussion, as in other types of group activities, the teacher or sponsor is concerned with the process rather than with the end result only. She is concerned that the students learn a method of thinking through a problem; that they listen to others and incorporate others' ideas into their own thinking; that they are tolerant toward the opinions expressed by others, trying to find some contribution in each expression of opinion rather than to contradict or "slap down" another person. It is only when a group holds to this attitude of working together to utilize all the contributions from a heterogeneous membership that effective discussion will take place.

Use Democratic Procedure. One of the most common criticisms students make of school clubs is that "they are just like classes." Sponsors may decrease their tendency to dominate their groups by becoming more aware of the nature of democratic methods. The following behavior has been frequently observed in the democratic leader:

1. He is a member of the group, not aloof from it; he plans activities with the members.
2. He encourages thinking and develops initiative on the part of the members.
3. He offers opportunities for choice whenever possible.
4. He shows interest in, and consideration for, each member; knows individual needs, interests, and backgrounds.
5. He expresses approval of the group as a whole more frequently than of individuals.

The members of a democratic group likewise show characteristic behavior:

1. They take an active part in planning and carrying out the activities.
2. They exercise initiative and originality.
3. They are interested in the activity and continue to work on it even when the leader is not present.
4. They enjoy the group experience.
5. They are friendly toward one another and toward the leader.

The role of the leader, to be sure, varies with the group's experience in working together. With a new group or with any group of inexperienced, immature students, the leader takes a more or less active part at first. Later he encourages the group to assume responsibility whenever they are able to carry it. He is there to help if the need arises. Still later, when the group has learned to plan and work together, the leader can play the role of consultant, with the group taking the initiative and the main responsibility for their activities.

The following descriptions of leaders in action show poor procedures, which sponsors can avoid, and good procedures, which they may adapt to their individual groups:

Conduct democratic discussions: In many instances teacher-sponsors permit only a semblance of democratic procedures

in the groups they are sponsoring. For example, the following discussion took place at a combined meeting of two departmental clubs between the president of one club and the teacher who was sponsoring it:

TEACHER: Wouldn't it be a good idea to have a combined meeting once a month so we could share our programs with others or prepare a joint exhibit?

PUPIL: But that would use up too much time, just as this meeting today has. We won't have time for our own club projects.

TEACHER: But a joint meeting would make it possible to contribute something of importance to the rest of the school.

PUPIL: But we want time to do what we've planned.

Having thrown out the suggestion of a joint meeting for the group to consider, the teacher should not have attempted to force her point of view on the pupils. She should have recognized their feeling about the matter. For example, she might have said, "If you feel the need for a joint meeting later, we can arrange it then."

In a ninth grade committee meeting to discuss promoting the sale of war bonds the faculty adviser showed a tendency at first to dominate the planning. He responded to pupils' suggestions with such comments as, "Oh, that's too much like what we did last year." "That is certainly an ambitious idea; whom are you going to get to do all the work?" "Well, come on, Jim, let's get going. Get some ideas out of this group." His unenthusiastic, critical responses to the students' suggestions put a damper on the discussion, and participation began to dwindle.

Realizing his mistake, the adviser made a more democratic approach. He found something to encourage in every suggestion. Then the conversation went somewhat like this:

PUPIL: I think we should get every homeroom to put on its own sales promotion campaign.

ADVISER: That's a good idea. It puts more people to work on the program. How would you help the homeroom to do this?

Later in the discussion of ways and means a pupil suggested making a large chart for the main hall.

ADVISER: That's good. It would arouse interest, but doesn't it require a lot of work? How can you plan to finish it quickly enough so that it can be used in the drive?

PUPIL: Bert is good at art work; let him select those he wants for helpers; he can do the job in time.

BERT: I'm willing, but I'd like to work on it at home. I have more time there.

SECOND PUPIL: I live near Bert. Suppose I go over to his house and help him?

THIRD PUPIL: Better yet, since the job has to be done in sections, why can't Bert draw up a sketch at home, decide on the colors, and then give each of us a section to do? In that way we can have the whole job done and ready for use by the day after tomorrow.

EVERYONE: That's a good idea.

BERT: I'll have the sketch ready for you tomorrow.

At the close of the meeting the adviser told them they had done a fine planning job; he said he was sure they would be successful in contributing to an important national project.

This committee meeting had several values other than its main purpose of promoting the sale of bonds. The pupils made progress in thinking on a practical problem, building on one another's suggestions, contributing their ideas and abilities to the group, respecting the opinions of others, giving approval for good ideas, and having their ideas rejected without feeling defeated. In short, they experienced success in thinking and acting cooperatively.

After his poor start, the adviser said nothing as long as the conversation progressed toward a solution of the problem. He showed enthusiasm for the students' good ideas. To stimulate further thinking, he asked thought-provoking questions. He guided the assignment of responsibilities so that every member of the committee had a task and certain enthusiastic pupils did not carry too heavy a load. Bert, for example, had been too shy to participate until his art ability was mentioned. The responsibility entrusted to him by the group and the confidence they expressed made him feel that he truly "belonged"; from then on he took an active part in the planning. As each member of the committee assumed

some appropriate responsibility, the sponsor became more enthusiastic. Finally, he praised the group as a whole for their good thinking and planning and made them feel that they had a part in an important nation-wide effort.

In certain situations, the teacher-sponsor tends to dominate a student activity because the student leader is inadequate. However, if the adult remembers that one of the purposes of student activities is to develop leadership ability in students, he will try to help the boy or girl become a more effective leader, instead of merely stepping in to get the immediate job done efficiently. This subtle kind of teaching requires that the sponsor be sensitive to the needs of the group as well as to those of the potential leader. Otherwise he might develop the leader at the expense of the group.

In a seventh grade homeroom the teacher had taken a back seat and a young, inexperienced chairman was presiding. The chairman had just concluded the discussion of a small piece of business and apparently had forgotten the most important item of business. Instead of allowing him to continue to flounder, the teacher said, "Weren't you going to discuss the membership fees?" After this matter had been sufficiently discussed and the pupils were beginning to repeat previous remarks, the teacher, in an aside, said to the chairman, "How about stating the motion now?"

A heated discussion centered on the question: "How can we make sure that all those who ordered emblems will bring the thirty-five cents?" No sensible solution was suggested, and a good deal of time was wasted in pointless discussion. The teacher, however, did not enter the discussion until the chairman appealed to her for help. Then she said, "How would it be not to send for the emblems until the money has been received?" This obvious solution was immediately accepted by the group.

Since a new member was present in the group, the sponsor said, "Bill is new in the group and would probably like to be brought up to date on what the club has been doing." The members spontaneously accepted this suggestion and informally told Bill about the club's aims and activities. Thus a friendly feeling toward the newcomer was established,

and the entire group profited by the review of its activities.

In this situation the sponsor was active enough to prevent a feeling of futility on the part of the group and of failure on the part of the leader. She was patient enough to give them the experience of trying to find a solution to their problem themselves. With an inexperienced group, or under the pressure of time, it is hard for the teacher-sponsor to be content to guide the members slowly and quietly, to let them learn by doing rather than to settle the question with an efficient word here and a firm suggestion there.

This is not to say, of course, that the sponsor should refrain from giving specific instruction in group methods. In fact, the younger and less experienced the group, the more of such instruction the sponsor must give to officers and members. The wise and experienced sponsor, however, knows that his job is to help the group learn to govern themselves. An important measure of his success is the degree to which he makes himself less indispensable.

Apply group work methods to the study hall: Another example of democratic procedure involves a more sophisticated and intelligent group in an independent, or private, school.

Study hall in X—— school was not an educational experience. There was no consistent policy, and students were quick to take advantage of the varying teacher attitudes toward their conduct in the room and their freedom to come and go to other parts of the building. Some students made a game of outwitting the teacher.

This was a problem involving the majority of the students. The policy of the school was to solve cooperatively such problems as were of mutual concern and were on a level where students could study them profitably. This problem was of this kind. The faculty decided to refer it directly to the students and to give them all the aid that was necessary and desirable.

A suitable teacher was selected as adviser. Prior to the opening of school in September, he met with the president and vice president of the student body. Together they an-

alyzed the problem and made tentative plans. The vice president assumed leadership in organizing and instituting the plan and, with the help of a committee, prepared a detailed statement to give to each tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade student who would be a member of a study hall.

The biggest problem at the beginning was to determine the membership of the various study halls. This was finally accomplished by two means: by noting the actual attendance and by checking the program cards. Leaders were selected and put in charge of each group. Their duties were to check attendance, give students passes to other parts of the school, and maintain a study atmosphere.

At first a great deal of confusion arose. The vice president and faculty adviser then met with all study hall leaders and worked out a satisfactory attendance-checking system. There were also problems of behavior, attitude, lack of cooperation and of a sense of responsibility—the essence of living together. In this case, the study-hall problems were brought to the student leadership group of the school: the student council. They were presented as a challenge: Here was an opportunity for the students to manage their own affairs. Were they really as irresponsible as they seemed? If they couldn't handle this situation, how could they expect to handle bigger things? What were the causes of failure? Could a student group discipline their peers? What can be done with a student who will not adjust to group suggestion and pressure?

These questions were squarely faced by the elected leaders and their advisers. When they analyzed their own behavior, it became apparent to many council members that they were responsible for setting the standards for study hall conduct, that leadership carried with it corresponding responsibilities. The session was like an old-fashioned revival meeting; member after member confessed that he or she had erred but would henceforth sin no more.

This was the turning point. From then on, the prominent athletes set good examples and were a controlling influence; the social leaders refrained from engaging in conversation in study hall. A spirit of cooperation and determination to succeed permeated the study-hall groups. To be sure, there

were lapses, but period after period the organization functioned well.

There are still problems of how to deal with the student who takes advantage of the opportunity to go to other parts of the building for work, to provide a place for group conferences under adequate supervision, and to insure continued interest and growth in effective study and reading methods. There is a tendency to let down when plans are working well. The students need to know that the faculty are back of them and ready to help them with new problems and with the continuous appraisal and revision of their procedure. Perhaps the faculty can tutor individuals or instruct small groups in reading and study technics, so that all the students may achieve greater efficiency in the use of study time. This is an example of guidance through a group experience directed toward making the school environment more conducive to effective study. Even more important was the experience these students gained in cooperative living and self-control.

In a democratic group there is no hard and fast distinction between leader and follower. The process is somewhat like this: The adults listen and, like other members of the group, occasionally make comments to help answer questions, clarify issues, correct misconceptions, or bring a wandering discussion back to base. The discussion may be initiated and carried forward by anyone in the group: adult sponsor, student leader, or members. If the student leader is inexperienced, the more capable members, by cooperating fully with him, help him to accomplish the main purpose of the meeting. For example, at a meeting of one student council, the president was vague as to the exact purpose of the meeting. He had trouble in conveying his thoughts to the group. At this stage, the vice president tactfully and clearly outlined several possible approaches to the matter under discussion. From then on the group, under the leadership of the president, was able to consider all the phases of the problem.

Work Behind the Scenes, Too. The role of the adult leader may be made still clearer by a summary of procedures in an executive meeting of a college student organization:

1. The sponsor discussed the first meeting in advance with the president, who was very inexperienced. They considered whether to have free discussion or to follow parliamentary law, what the order of business was to be, how to state the problems, how to summarize, how to work out as a group the ways and means of carrying out the decisions.

2. During the meeting the sponsor gave the president unobtrusive suggestions that made for efficiency, insured that the members got a good impression of the meeting, and increased the president's self-confidence. For example, after some members had been chosen to handle a reception, the chairman said, "I hope I can count on you all to come," and was about to go on to something else. At that point the sponsor, who had had experience with the group's failure to take responsibility, suggested that the president ask those who were sure they could be present to sign their names.

3. Everyone took part in the discussion and contributed excellent ideas. For instance, someone suggested assigning the dates for parties early in the term, so that the social program and other records of social events could be completed earlier and the parties supervised more effectively.

4. The president summarized the discussion of each main item of business, made note of side issues that needed future discussion, listed the names of persons who were assigned to specific responsibilities, and brought every practical problem down to a discussion of ways and means and the definite allocation of responsibility.

5. One member of the group, skilled in taking shorthand, took full notes of the meeting. The fact that a secretary was recording what they said improved the quality of the members' discussion. Later study of this record helped the president to evaluate and improve her technic of leadership.

6. Information about the school calendar and other facts needed in the discussion were accessible. Sometimes the sponsor supplied information necessary to speed up discussion or correct wrong ideas; sometimes members of the group had the facts needed.

7. If the president or a member of the group made a vague statement, the sponsor often asked a question that resulted

in the clarification or rephrasing of the statement. The sponsor cooperated with the group but did not dominate it.

There were three points on which the sponsor might be criticized:

1. At several points, she made suggestions too early, before the members of the group had had a chance to express their own ideas on the subject.

2. She showed a tendency to be more concerned about getting the items of business successfully and efficiently completed than about promoting growth in clear thinking.

3. On one occasion, she responded too sharply to a suggestion of which she herself strongly disapproved, without sufficient regard for the feelings of the speaker.

The sponsoring of school dances presents special problems: How long should school dances last? Who should be chaperons, and what should be the responsibilities and privileges of the chaperons? How may a few uncooperative individuals be prevented from bringing criticism on the entire group? How should the sponsor deal with a group who go off in search of other recreation after the school party or dance?

If the school dance is planned by committees as previously described, standards will have been set up and many of the above questions will have been settled in advance. Young members of the faculty who enjoy dancing themselves are especially welcome at a school dance. If the chaperons do not dance, other recreation should be planned for them. The students should arrange for the transportation of the chaperons, greet them when they arrive, and say good-by to them at the close of the evening.

In one high school the dean of girls usually talks informally with the boys before their first dance. There are a number of questions they wish to have answered, and certain standards are thus made clear to the group as a whole shortly before the dance. This has proved to be an ounce of prevention worth many pounds of "cure."

Sponsors have tried various methods of deflecting groups of boys and girls from seeking further recreation at the close of a school affair. In some communities supervised post-party activities are planned. In one town the theater gives a mid-

night performance after the junior-senior banquet and mothers open their homes to groups of still insatiable students. This policy is based on the argument that the students would seek other recreation anyway and that the only thing to do is to provide adequate chaperonage.

Other schools put the responsibility upon the parents. Parents are notified that the school event will end at a certain time. The hours are also announced in the local paper. Parents thus know when to expect their boys and girls home, and, at the time appointed for closing, the school washes its hands of further responsibility.

In still another school the attitudes of the boys and girls toward late evening recreation was changed by discussing the question, first with individuals, then with small groups, and later with larger groups. The students raised the issues involved, among which were the implied criticism of the event if it needed supplementing, the possibility of an anti-climax to a really enjoyable evening, and the inadvisability of bringing adult practices into the high school.

The first of these methods represents a compromise that often does not satisfy anyone. The second depends for its success upon parental authority. The third solution of the problem relies upon the process of re-education and aims to create in the students a sensible and wholesome satisfaction with a school event ending at a reasonable hour.

The committee's evaluation of a dance or other activity should be considered by the next committee planning a similar event. Otherwise the criticisms and constructive suggestions thus made are forgotten and fail to function in the new situation.

Encourage Vital School and Community Projects. More than anything else, perhaps, the success of a club, student council, or other student group depends upon its having worth-while projects to work on. The following projects have enlisted the wholehearted interest and support of students in high school or college.

Freshman orientation projects: A junior high school council worked out plans for making their school more familiar

and attractive to the incoming elementary school pupils. They planned a series of parties to entertain the sixth grade and to help them become acquainted with some of the older students and with the surroundings. To make these visits educational as well as entertaining, they prepared handbooks to give to their guests, arranged a tour of the building during which the newcomers met all the seventh grade teachers in their own rooms, and printed an issue of their school paper dedicated to the new seventh graders.

In a large city high school the general organization, the community government of the school, enthusiastically endorsed and financed a motion picture designed to acquaint incoming students with the life of the school.³ To carry out the plan the honor society appointed a committee composed of members and non-members of the society who had ability either in photography or in writing. A faculty member experienced in film production served as their adviser. They started work by asking the various departments to suggest dramatic incidents that would lend themselves to photography. Scores of pupils assisted in arranging the scenes, which finally included large action groups and close-up views showing instruction and extraclass activities in every field. Floodlights operated by the school lighting squad were used in making the indoor scenes. Over 900 feet of film were eventually condensed to 650 feet. A special editorial committee wrote the script. When the picture was shown, this script was read by three pupils. The music department furnished incidental music during the film. The appreciative response of the incoming pupils indicated that the project was worth while. For the hundreds of pupils who took part in the film the project also had real value. It not only improved their technical skills but afforded them concrete evidence of what can be accomplished by purposeful group activity.

Book week program: It was the librarian who suggested to a member of the student council that the council sponsor an assembly program for book week. She suggested that students impersonating four well-known authors of recent books

³ Florence C. Myers, "A Film for Orientation Purposes," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:87, January, 1944.

be interviewed by other students. The librarian helped the committee with sources of information but let them work out the interviews and characterizations as they chose. The audience was enthusiastic, and the students who impersonated the authors gained special insights from playing these roles.

*A cooperative commencement.*⁴ The senior class at Glenville High School in Cleveland took the responsibility for planning their commencement program. They decided to hold on the stage a group discussion that would be led by a master discussion leader. Almost half the class (96 members) volunteered to participate; they organized into eight groups of twelve students each. They decided on the theme, "Democracy in Action." The three key questions were:

1. Democracy—What does it mean to us?
2. Twelve years in school—Have we been educated for Democracy?
3. "One World"—How can we get rid of prejudice—racial, religious, national?

For one month the groups met each day in their study periods, without teacher supervision, to discuss each of these questions. At intervals the chairmen of each group met with two members of the faculty who helped them with problems of discussion method and sources of information.

On commencement night the ninety-six members were seated toward the front of the stage where there were two microphones. Each group had chosen a spokesman who had summarized the thinking of the group. The President of the class introduced the discussion leader, Dr. William H. Kilpatrick. After a few words in which he put the class at ease, he asked two groups to give their opinion of the first question. Then he threw the question open for general discussion. The opening summaries were like sparks, which ignited not only the entire class but the two thousand people in the audience as well. The students rose and spoke spontaneously on these questions so vital to them, and the chairman's brief, pertinent summaries kept the discussion moving

⁴ Edna M. Studebaker, "A Unique Commencement Program," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:88-90, January, 1944.

forward. When the chairman made the final summary, all present felt they had had a creative educational experience.

Discussion of current problems: In order to control the atomic bomb and other destructive forces in the world today, persons of all ages and occupations must learn to think about current problems. One place to begin is in schools and colleges, as in the commencement project just described. With less experienced and self-reliant groups, the adult leader will at first have to make suggestions and help the student chairman to improve his discussion technic. One group said they wanted to learn "facts" and were eager to acquire current methods of getting and appraising information. Later they learned that "facts" are tentative and that the world picture is continually changing. At the end of each meeting the chairman called for questions that were still unanswered and asked two volunteer "reporters" to begin the next meeting with whatever facts they could find on these questions. When well conducted, this type of project is very significant.

Teen-age canteens and community recreation: The desire of young people for their own recreational centers is manifested in the popularity of the teen-age canteen and youth council. These centers have been set up by various agencies: by a school group, a youth-serving agency, a commercial company, or an independent group of young people or adults.

In one community the idea was proposed by members of the Junior League who agreed to finance the canteen and asked for assistance from the school. The Director of Guidance made it clear that the program was to be developed by the young people, not given to them. A small group of boys and girls made a preliminary survey, which indicated interest in the canteen. A larger group of thirty-two pupil representatives met with the Junior League members to discuss the main problems: music, food, supervision, trouble-makers, smoking. They arranged to send letters to parents and to issue membership cards to boys and girls.

Later the adults did not consult the young people enough. The project failed when the adults went ahead on their own instead of working the plans out cooperatively. Teen-age boys and girls need well-qualified adults to stand by and

guide, but they do not want to be dominated. They need security coupled with reasonable freedom. They welcome adults who want to understand young people and work things out with them. There must be constant interpretation of youth to adults and of adults to youth.

It is possible to have social groups that will serve young people's needs: for recognition as a part of community life, for stabilizing routine, for new experiences, for affection and security, for friendships with their contemporaries and with adults, and for faith in the future. The development of such community groups is an excellent project for school and college clubs and councils.

Get "Results." To "get results" means different things to different persons. To some, "results" mean immediate action or accomplishment: a well-acted play, a high-class school paper. Others are more concerned with making desirable changes in individuals. The two kinds of results are not mutually exclusive. In fact, a good product usually has a beneficial effect on those who achieve it, but when a choice has to be made between the two, human values come first. The quickest way to get "results" is not always the best.

The most important result is that members derive full benefits from a given group activity. Praise of the group, and sometimes of individuals, is frequently effective. Students need recognition for good work. This can usually be given spontaneously and sincerely as occasions arise. Recognition in the form of school credit or awards may defeat the main purpose of student activities by emphasizing competition rather than cooperation and diverting attention from the activity itself to the end result or extrinsic reward. Between the extremes of casual approval on the one hand and formal reward on the other, are various citations that serve to clarify the kinds of services individuals can render to the group and to give them an added satisfaction in their accomplishment.

Keep Records of Group Activities. For the following purposes it is advisable to keep records of a group's activities:

1. To aid in the evaluation of the experience.
2. To prevent duplication and provide for progression of experience.
3. To pass on suggestions to groups that may be carrying out similar activities another year.

Since improvement in a process is made by a continuous critical evaluation, a club program or social event should be discussed soon after it has taken place. The commendable features should be recorded; the causes of the undesirable features should be analyzed; and suggestions should be made for future programs. The following is an example of the type of report⁵ made by committees of students in one college that maintains a highly successful and educative social program:

AN OUTLINE FOR A REPORT OF A SOCIAL EVENT

- I. Name of function, date, place.
- II. Committee members named, duties explained.
- III. Steps taken by chairman of the committee in organizing her plans.
- IV. Chaperons named; suggestions as to the type of invitation to be used.
- V. Itemized account of expenses, stated so as to help future committee members.

Total Income _____

1. Music
2. Refreshments
3. Chaperons (transportation, corsages)
4. Decorations
5. Tickets
6. Janitor service
7. Piano
8. Miscellaneous

Total Expenses _____

Profit _____

- VI. Number of guests allowed and actual number present.
- VII. Success of the function.
 1. What was its purpose? Was it a success?
 2. Did it further the purpose of the organization?
- VIII. Suggestions for the help of future chairmen.

⁵Quoted by permission of Marie Andrews.

REPORT OF THE SOPHOMORE HALLOWE'EN PARTY

The Hallowe'en Party sponsored by the Class of —— was held Friday evening, October 29, ——, in the gymnasium. Preparations were made for about 600 guests, and as the gymnasium, which accommodates that number, was completely filled we judge our estimate was correct.

The Committee chairmen were as follows:

- Decorations, Elizabeth Cameron
- Entertainment, Florence Belyea
- Refreshments, Jane Clarke
- Invitations, Joan Cowie
- Music and Publicity, Mary Slipp
- Finance, Catherine Jamer
- Clean-up, Isobel Good
- Ushers, Margaret Smith

Special recognition for the success of our party should be given to the loyal cooperation of the committee chairmen who gave much time and effort in planning the affair.

ORGANIZATION OF PLANS:

The first meeting of the entire committee took place three weeks prior to the date set for the party. At that time we decided to have a gypsy entertainment and decorations. It was planned to have everyone in the college come in costume. The various duties of each committee were presented to the chairman at this meeting.

Steps to be taken by the chairman of the party are as follows:

1. Register date with calendar committee.
2. Have members of the committee approved by the dean.
3. Secure permission from Miss Kemp for the use of the gymnasium.
4. Secure from Mrs. Gordon permission to decorate the hall.
5. Arrange for special conference with the director in charge of social activities.

The committee reports with respect to finances, decorations, entertainment, and so forth, were as follows:

FINANCIAL REPORT:

Refreshments	\$33.90
Music	20.00
Invitations	.86
Decorations	8.70
Janitor service	6.00
Miscellaneous	.65
<hr/>	
Total	\$70.11

DECORATIONS:

One end of the gymnasium was used as the stage and was decorated to look like a forest. Logs were scattered around, as well as branches and small trees. In the center was a campfire made of colored paper, flashlights, and logs. In each corner was a tent, one being used for palmistry.

The rest of the gymnasium was decorated with bright-colored crepe paper worked in designs on the side walls and hung from the beams. These decorations were very effective and added to the gaiety of the evening.

The hall was decorated in the traditional orange and black of Hallowe'en. Weird pictures of cats, witches, and ghosts were hung along the walls and orange and black streamers hung from the posts.

The decorations were very inexpensive and attractive.

ENTERTAINMENT:

This year the entertainment committee decided to do something original. The result was a gypsy skit in which gypsy storytelling, dancing, and singing took place around the campfire. Eight children were invited from the town and they added greatly to the general atmosphere.

The committee feel that originality in entertainment is effective.

MUSIC:

Peter Blair's Orchestra furnished music for dancing, following the entertainment. They brought only four pieces, thus making it less expensive. The music was very good and we recommend it for future functions.

REFRESHMENTS:

The usual Hallowe'en refreshments were served—cider and doughnuts.

The bill was as follows:

50 gals. cider at \$.33 a gal.	\$16.50
75 doz. doughnuts at \$.18 a doz.	13.50
600 Dixie cups at \$.65 a C	3.90
Total	<hr/> \$33.90

INVITATIONS:

The invitations were printed in black ink on orange paper and were decorated with a drawing of a gypsy girl's head. These were sent to certain administrative officers, teachers, and to the presidents of the three other classes.

USHERS:

The committee was made up of four members who took their positions around the gymnasium to direct the guests, and to see that all comforts were provided for them during the evening. Special furniture was secured for our invited guests of the administration.

CLEAN-UP:

A committee of eight was appointed to clean up the hall after dinner. Another committee of twelve received special permission from the dean to remain out until twelve o'clock; they took charge of cleaning the gymnasium. All decorations were down and properties for the entertainment removed, cider taken from the tables, doors and windows locked, and lights turned out before the committee left.

It gave the sophomore class a great deal of pleasure to be responsible for giving the entire college a pleasant Hallowe'en. Every sophomore tried to do her share as hostess, and we feel that the spirit of good fellowship was present during the entire party.

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Decorations may be secured at Doddson's which carries Dennison's supplies at very reasonable prices.
2. Decorations may be saved from the party for later use.
3. It has been found effective to have the sophomores personally invite the various freshmen to come in costume to the hall and the party following.
4. Cider and doughnuts may be conveniently ordered through Calkin's Delicatessen. They in turn order the doughnuts from an excellent baker. Arrangements can be made whereby the

delicatessen will refund the money on any cider not used. We were given very efficient service.

5. It is advantageous to have the class treasurer pay all bills which should previously be OK'd by the chairman.

6. The success of the party depends on the spirit shown not only by the committee but by the entire class sponsoring the affair.

Respectfully submitted,
Martha Mead, *Chairman*

Recognize Need for Counseling. In the informal atmosphere of a club or social event, the sponsor has an excellent opportunity to observe individuals. Many teachers say that they have come to know the students in their classes through association with them in student activities. It often happens that a counselor, seeing an individual's need for a certain kind of group experience, makes arrangements for him to join a congenial club or interest group. By telling the group worker about this individual, the counselor can help to ensure for him the experiences he needs. Occasionally some member needs special counseling, either by the sponsor or by the best-qualified person available.

Train Student Leaders. A most important part of the adult leader's responsibility is to assist the students in becoming more effective and democratic leaders. This aim is accomplished largely by individual conferences with students about their leadership responsibilities and by guidance in the groups.

In some schools and colleges there is a leadership training class which is open to potential leaders as well as to those already in positions of leadership. In a high school of twelve hundred pupils, the president of the student council requested instruction in leadership. The dean of girls received permission from the superintendent to schedule a class. Twenty-three pupils enrolled. In the first meeting the dean asked for suggestions as to what they wanted to include, what they thought good leaders should be and do, how the class should be conducted. The group wanted help especially on how to determine the qualifications of leaders, how to con-

duct meetings, and how to exert democratic leadership in school affairs.

The dean and the students developed the content of the course⁶ during the semester. They studied a book on parliamentary law, discussed procedures, and took turns conducting the meeting according to parliamentary rules. Frequently various procedures were dramatized as well as discussed. The dean worked closely with faculty sponsors and encouraged them to give students responsibility in applying their newly acquired leadership skills, as well as assistance and guidance whenever necessary. Thus actual experience in leadership was helpfully supplemented by systematic instruction.

One group of leaders in physical education held their committee meeting at noon, one day a week. They brought their lunch and sat on the gym floor. During luncheon, pleasant conversation and slow eating were encouraged. At 12:30 the meeting was called to order and the members' problems of leadership were described and discussed. The president sometimes mentioned ways in which he thought leaders might improve: "Being more thoughtful of a new member," "Knowing the rules," "Remembering that others are working when we go through the halls," "Keeping still when someone else has the floor," "Being more thoughtful and not running through another class's game but going around it on the boundary lines," "Keeping off the lawns adjoining the school." Outstanding examples of good leadership were mentioned by the sponsor, or a student who had done extraordinarily good work was asked to tell about it. Sometimes a story or something else of inspirational nature ended the meeting. One of the club sponsor's prime responsibilities is the training of student leaders.

✧ Conclusion ✧

In this chapter very little attention has been given to the machinery of administering student activities. Instead, emphasis has been placed on the group work process and the

⁶ See Virginia Bailard and Harry C. McKown. *So You Were Elected*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

interaction among members and sponsor which leads to the personal development of all. If students and adults know what they want and want the right thing, they will devise the ways and means.

This phase of the teacher's work is far from trivial. Skillfully conducted, student activities build personality. Early interests, engaged in with satisfaction, develop into hobbies, avocations, and vocations. Education for leisure is quite as important as education for livelihood. Club sponsors can help students to learn "to give the highest quality to our moments as they pass."

VII

THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR

Even in the positions already described, which are predominantly group work, counseling is involved. The classroom teacher may have as many as thirty short conversations with individual students during a week. The homeroom or core-curriculum teacher legitimately uses part of his period for counseling. The club sponsor frequently discovers the need for counseling as he observes individuals in his group.

Other positions, variously designated as grade adviser, class adviser, faculty adviser, and part-time counselor, require more or less counseling. Some class advisers do individual counseling, lead discussions, chaperon at parties, supervise social functions, thus fusing group work with counseling. Others in positions having the same titles are limited to individual contacts with their counselees.

✓ The Work of the Teacher-Counselor ✓

The faculty adviser responsible for the educational guidance of a large number of students attempts to help his counselees in the following ways:

1. At the beginning of the term he holds initial interviews with each counselee to discuss their schedules and conditions that may be interfering with their best adjustment.
2. He signs schedules after the students have thought over their tentative plan.
3. During the first month he meets his counselees inform-

ally in a group, as at a tea. He also talks with individuals who come to him voluntarily.

4. About midterm, he schedules conferences for the purpose of helping the students appraise their academic progress thus far.

5. At midyear, he holds two conferences with each student, one to consider their schedules for the next term, another to approve them.

6. During the year he meets with students, individually and in groups, whenever they are in need of guidance.

Some of the difficulties encountered by the newly appointed faculty adviser are described as follows by a teacher who was selected as one of eight counselors in a high school of about two thousand students:

I expect we need all sorts of material for guidance but we are so ignorant (at least I am) that I scarcely know where to start. I wish I had taken courses in guidance long before my last summer at the University. I've tried to do some reading, but, frankly, I don't know where to begin.

I think our present counseling system has its drawbacks in that all of us feel that altogether too much of our time is spent on checking absences and tardinesses. This administrative matter could easily be taken over by the office force and leave the counselor free to work with special cases. As it is, the first half hour of our counseling time is devoted to attendance. Perhaps it is a necessary evil.

Except for this attendance problem, I feel that I am getting somewhere with my work. The diary record of daily activities offers me a good opening for the interview. In making the appointments with my counselees, I send the following slip:

APPOINTMENT SLIP

Name

Please see Counselor

In Room

Date..... Time.....

Counselor.....

Return to class

Will you please bring with you a diary record of your day on.....? This should include your activities from the time you arise

until you retire. Report these activities by $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours and include your outside work and play as well as class periods and time spent in study.

I have already had interviews with over sixty of the 110 students assigned to me. Each of these interviews I have written up so that I shall have better continuity in my later contacts.

It seems to me that we counselors of the freshmen have the easiest job. These youngsters do not have immediate problems of employment, but are nevertheless not free from unrest. I try to interest them in suitable extracurricular activities. Mrs. B—— is doing a fine job with her Girl Reserves group and the Hi Y is reaching more boys than heretofore.

However, we have more serious discipline problems. The boys and girls seem to resent any suggestion of authority. For example, the principal worked with a Student Advisory Committee from the Student Council and presented to the Council a suggested method of handling unexcused absences and tardinesses. But the Council voted it down. They seemed to fear the disapproval of the student body, even though they thought the suggestion had its good points.

When a student is in danger of failing in one of his subjects, the teacher sends duplicate warning slips to the counselor and to the parents. I have to spend a good deal of my time working with these failing students—perhaps too much time. It seems to me that the superior students lose out with this method; they get no attention. I have found that the freshmen need reassurance and guidance with respect to health, school achievement, and social relations.

The adviser of senior boys is doing a grand job. He has been successful in helping some of the boys when they were confused about what to do with their lives.

I don't feel that I am as close to my freshmen as I should be. I think it would be better if I taught some freshman classes and had contact with my counselees in the classroom.

During the first semester we counselors met with the principal once a week. This semester we have asked to meet twice a week, at least for a while, for we feel that we need to be in closer agreement in principles and methods.

This letter describes concretely many of the problems of the part-time counselor—his lack of preparation for the work; his heavy counseling load; his limited counseling time,

much of which is used up in routine and clerical work; his lack of contact with his counselees in groups; and his need for helpful conferences, courses, and books.

Another difficulty results from differences in educational philosophy. Too frequently the teacher-counselor represents the school, which has one philosophy, the while he tries to operate from the personnel point of view, which is based on a different philosophy. As a member of the school staff, he feels responsible for supporting the school's policy, even though it conflicts with the best philosophy of counseling. To be effective, counseling must be organically related to the function of the school.

He may also be handicapped by being a teacher. Perhaps his greatest temptations are to impart knowledge when he should be listening, to be swift and authoritative in his responses, to give advice, and to be content with immediate, superficial results. To do a good job, the teacher-counselor should be willing to throw aside his mantle of authority and enter humbly into that confused world that makes a student steal, run away, tell lies, or fail in algebra.

✓ The Name and Nature of Student Counseling ✓

Counseling is a face-to-face relationship in which growth takes place—growth of the counselor as well as of the counselee.

The Counseling Relationship. Each counseling period is an adventure in relationship. It is counselee-centered. The student feels that here is someone who likes and understands him, has confidence in him and respects him.

The relationship is warm yet objective. It is not possessive, arousing hostility in parents who may feel that the counselor is alienating their child's affection. It is not even the relationship of a friendship that involves responsibility and obligation. It is possible for the counselor to identify himself with the student, thinking and feeling with him, without becoming emotionally involved. This kind of relationship

in which there is warmth and understanding but not emotional involvement has been called "empathy."

No better brief description of the counseling relationship can be found than in Chapter 13 of First Corinthians—the finest statement in literature of the efficacy of love. Applied to counseling, this chapter makes it clear that the most important factor in good human relationships is not fluency of speech, or skill in predicting, or knowledge of psychology and personnel technics, or willingness to make sacrifices, or even insight and faith. It is a genuine, unsentimental love of people. Out of this love naturally grows patience, kindness, and an attitude of looking for, and expecting, the best in persons. Teacher-counselors with this basic attitude bring out the best in people; they are concerned with the success of the person being counseled rather than with their own success. They understand the influence of his past, accept him as he now is, and have faith in his future fulfillment.

The counseling relationship may be illumined by reading two adolescents' descriptions of the relationship they had experienced. The first is an excerpt from the last of a series of six interviews with a school counselor about educational and vocational plans:

It would be swell if you could talk to a lot of the students like this. It helped me to get my feelings about myself straightened out. I didn't really know it, but when we first started talking, I was pretty confused about wanting to do different things—you know, wanting to be a boy more than a girl. I thought I would be a teacher, but I didn't really feel, oh, completely satisfied about it. But just as soon as you started talking about the other side and showing me I could be the other things if I wanted, even without being a boy—well, I could think better what being a teacher really meant to me; and then I knew that was what I really wanted. I guess it was the telling me about other sides and sort of arguing against me that made me think better. I think that's a good idea, because if you had told me to be a teacher and let it go at that, I don't think I would ever have been absolutely sure of it. But the other way made me do a lot of thinking about it. And now I feel good about it. I think it helped me to know that, when anyone is going to make decisions, she should see as much of the whole picture as she can. Then,

if she has the facts, she can make up her own mind the way she really wants to do things; and she'll be satisfied because then she isn't guessing as much about it.

Then there's another thing that happened since we started talking together. That intelligence test, I guess it was, was very interesting. You know, kids often wonder whether they really are as capable as the rest, or whether it's just because people expect them to be and so they work hard. Well, now I know I've got a good start, and the things I'm interested in I can do all right if I work at them and really try. It helps a lot. . . .

I've changed a lot since I entered high school, but now I know more about what I want to be; and I can really go at it. My, I'm really looking forward to college.

The second quotation describes, in the girl's own words, the counseling relationship between a seriously disturbed adolescent and a trained psychologist who had had a long series of interviews with her:

I was thinking the other night about what you'd done for me. The way I feel about it is you kind of opened up everything. I was in a black hole. I was so depressed. You pulled me out. You never told me what to do, but while I talked with you things seemed to suggest themselves and they worked out. You didn't show me, yet you were the person who started it. I felt I could say more to you than to anyone else. You know how to take it more than anyone else. You never get mad and don't misunderstand. I used to save things to tell you. I've been saving things to tell you. It was as though you belonged to me. You certainly made me more understanding of what the past meant and how to handle it. It still comes up but I know better what to do about it. You were something, not exactly a person, you were a whole place. It was as though I belonged. . . . I don't know how to say it. Now that I think of it you didn't give me the answers. You started me out, and then when I'd come here it was all me. You knew me awfully well. I talked to myself. . . . When I first came it was all me. Then I got to thinking about how I affected other people and what I had to do with other people, but you were a part of it all.¹

Although this girl was being helped by a skillful and highly trained worker, the relationship has many elements that

¹ Virginia W. Lewis, *Changing the Behavior of Adolescent Girls*, p. 27. Archives of Psychology, No. 279, Columbia University, New York, 1943.

should enter into the teacher-counselor's relationship with students. Teachers, too, can make the student feel that they are really interested and want to listen, that they understand his point of view, that they are frank and honest, that they will not be offended or shocked by what he says, that they accept him as a person with potentialities who, like most people, including the teacher, is sometimes in need of help. If this kind of relationship is established, the student will assume responsibility for his own guidance and draw on his own resources, using whatever knowledge and skill the teacher-counselor can offer.

The Counselor's Influence as a Person. The counselor should be himself but not impose himself. He should be genuine and sincere. He is likely to fail if he tries to play a role that is not natural to him. If a person cannot risk being himself in the counseling relationship, he should not try to be a counselor. Although he will make adjustments to the person being interviewed, he will not assume a role that is foreign to his real nature. Moreover, he is consciously or unconsciously influenced by his theory of counseling, his attitude toward school policies, his outlook on life, his attitude toward people. In short, his counseling is an expression of his personality, not merely a technic applied at will.

During the counseling process the counselor grows in understanding of himself as well as of other persons. An outstanding psychiatrist said she never worked with a case in which she did not learn something about herself. If the counselor continuously analyzes, and reflects on, his counseling experiences, he will gain real proficiency in the art of counseling.

The question, "Should persons have counselors of the same or of the opposite sex?" is often raised. Probably the sex of the counselor does not matter, provided he understands the individual and is patient. In general, adolescents may be able to explore the problems of concern to them, especially those related to social hygiene and boy-girl relationships, better with persons of the same sex. However, personal factors such as the personality of the counselor and

the relations of the student with his parents may enter in to reverse this generalization. If an adolescent is very much tied up with the parent of the opposite sex, it is easier for him to get perspective by having a counselor of the same sex. An initial resistance to a woman counselor frequently arises from the student's idea of her role as a "mother person," to whom he has felt resistance. On the other hand, if the woman counselor can establish a good relationship, she may be able to help him rebuild his attitude toward the mother and toward women in general.

Counseling Procedures. On the firm foundation of a constructive relationship, the counseling procedure is built. Whether the contact be one short interview or a series of thirty hours, three overlapping stages are usually evident:

1. The counselee talks freely, expressing his feelings and points of view. By trying to explain himself and his relationships he gets a clearer understanding himself. The counselor listens and learns.

2. As the counselee talks, the counselor may repeat or reflect a point that seems to require emphasis or further consideration. He may ask questions that clarify the situation for himself and the counselee. If he sees the situation clearly enough, he may venture an interpretation when the counselee shows readiness for it. From time to time the counselee may need information or sources of information that the counselor can supply, such as facts about courses, schools, training opportunities, and vocations. Tests of ability, achievement, and interest, and other technics of personnel work are tools to be used to reinforce the resources that the person himself brings to bear upon problems of deviations from his own goals or the demands of society.

3. Before the counseling process ends, the counselee should not only have gained new insights but also have worked out ways of handling his situation more effectively. Counseling should lead to better adjustment.

Under these conditions growth takes place. The student achieves understanding of himself, of other persons, and of the resources on which he can draw. This kind of growth

cannot take place when counseling is synonymous with advice-giving—when the student is told what to do rather than helped to learn what to do and how to do it.

✓ The Various Levels of Student Counseling ✓

There are different levels of counseling, determined largely by the worker's training. Time enters in, to be sure, but it does not determine the quality of the counseling. In fact, the less time the counselor has, the more expert and experienced he should be. It probably requires a higher degree of skill to do effective counseling in a single hour than in a series of thirty interviews.

The first level of counseling is the one on which the classroom teacher generally works. He uses the group experiences to help each individual discover what he can do and become, find good ways of meeting daily situations, and gain the affection, recognition, and security he needs. In the short, face-to-face counseling relationship, the teacher can supplement, reinforce, and further individualize the group experience. This level of counseling requires an understanding of child and adolescent behavior, a knowledge of the abilities and interests of each student and of the resources for physical, intellectual, social, and spiritual development in the school and community. The teacher's success on this level of counseling depends largely upon (1) his relationships with students, (2) his knowledge of individual students, (3) his insight into the meaning of individuals' behavior, and (4) his ingenuity in helping each student to get the experiences he needs.

The second level of counseling goes a little more deeply into the needs that give rise to observed behavior and requires more time. The classroom teacher may find an hour now and then in a free period or after school hours; the homeroom or core-curriculum teacher may take time for counseling from the group activities; the faculty adviser may schedule appointments during periods that are free for him and for the students; the part-time counselor uses the periods assigned

to him for counseling. This level of counseling requires all the understanding and skill mentioned for the first level plus more knowledge of the complexities of child and adolescent behavior and more skill in counseling technics. The counselor working on this level is more expert than the ordinary teacher in helping the student to know himself, accept his best self, and work out more satisfying relations with his environment. On pages 272 to 280 is an illustration of this level of counseling having both developmental and remedial aspects. In this process of helping a student to understand himself, the teacher-counselor may become aware of deep-seated conflicts, persistent depression, extreme fluctuation of moods, extreme conscientiousness, and other signs of serious maladjustment with which he cannot cope on this level of counseling.

For those cases in which the underlying causes are deep-seated and complex, a third level of counseling is necessary. This is the level on which the social worker and the psychiatrist operate. The social worker deals with complex family relations; the psychiatrist with subconscious desires and motives, using his relationship with the client as a means of healing or therapy. Although the recommendations they make for treatment often seem simple and obvious, they differ from a less expert diagnosis in that they are more certain to be right. These specialists are highly trained in the physical, social, and psychological aspects of behavior. They have had experience in case work and psychotherapy under supervision and should be able to work skillfully, on one hand, with teachers and, on the other hand, with other specialists and agencies.

The fourth level—psychoanalysis—goes still more deeply into the subconscious. When present behavior is being influenced by unconscious motives and conflicts, it is sometimes necessary to bring these to the surface and deal with them in the psychoanalytic process. To decide whether psychoanalytic treatment is necessary requires third-level skills and sometimes special instruments such as the Rorschach method.

It is the responsibility of the teacher-counselor to qualify himself to work as expertly as possible on the first two levels

of counseling. If he is familiar with the guidance and welfare agencies in the community, he will know where to look for help and will be able to request the referral of cases more intelligently and skillfully. One of his most important responsibilities is to recognize cases which he does not have the requisite time or skill to handle.

✓ Understanding the Student Counselee ✓

Student-centered counseling requires a knowledge of the dynamics of child and adolescent behavior. A brief review here will merely serve as an introduction to more extensive study in this field. At every age, an understanding of physical growth, emotional relationships, and social pressures is necessary in order to understand "what makes Johnny run." At every age, the individual's past, present, and future influences what he does and says.

The infant is egocentric. He is concerned with discovering himself and making himself as comfortable as possible. His growth is rapid; his learning, prodigious. In these early years he builds ideas of himself and his world. If he has been deprived of the warmth of a mother's constant love, if he is expected to form habits of bowel and bladder control before he is able, if he is hungry, cold, sick, neglected, he develops unsatisfied needs that he sometimes seeks all his life to fulfill.

The preschool child is family-centered, though "I" is still the most frequently used pronoun in his vocabulary. Like the infant, his attitude toward life depends on his experiences. If he feels he has been displaced in his mother's affection by a baby brother or sister, he will try various ways of reinstating himself. With his limited experience, he may choose ways that only alienate him further from the thing he wants most. If he is valued for what he can do—"Mother will love you if you're good; papa will spank you if you are bad"—rather than for himself as a person, he may become anxious, insecure, fearful, always threatened by the withdrawal of his parents' affection when he does not measure up

to their standards. This anxiety may persist into school and college years.

The primary school child is likely to be somewhat teacher-centered. He is beginning to move into a larger world, but his home is always in the background. The security or insecurity he feels at home goes with him to school. As in earlier years, his health and physical condition, persons' expectations of him and his success in meeting these expectations, and his idea of himself influence his behavior.

The child in the intermediate grades tends to be gang-centered. He moves toward and with children of his own sex. He is influenced by their opinion. An eleven- or twelve-year-old boy's prestige with his group depends upon his being fearless and ready to take chances and on having skill in group games and ability to lead. If he possesses these "masculine" qualities, he is likely also to be appreciated for gentleness, friendliness, enthusiasm, and a sense of humor. Girls of the same age, on the other hand, are admired for being friendly, pretty, neat, and good-humored. Aggressive, boisterous behavior is disapproved in girls, admired in boys.² The period from ten to fifteen years of age is relatively free from illness; it has the lowest death rate of all age periods. It has, however, a rising accident rate. The child's need for adventure is great. When school is dull, he seeks excitement elsewhere. When school work is challenging and appropriate, he goes at it with a will.

As the child approaches adolescence, marked changes in growth take place. About two years before puberty—the turning point in physiological maturity—a growth spurt usually occurs. Children become taller and heavier and more like adults in appearance. This growth spurt occurs earlier for girls than for boys. Girls begin to grow faster than usual around ten or eleven years; boys, around eleven or twelve years. That is why some girls of twelve seem quite grown up, while their classmates of the same age are still little boys.

² Caroline M. Tyron, "The Adolescent Peer Culture," *Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Adolescence*, pp. 227-228. The Department of Education, The University of Chicago, Chicago, 1944.

At about fourteen, girls are overtaken in height and weight by boys, who are growing rapidly while the girls' spurt of growth is dying down.

Increase in rate of growth is only one manifestation of the child's approach to maturity. The whole body is changing, not merely its external form. Around nine or ten years, on the average, there is an increase in the sex hormones, or internal secretions. Changes in body shape and form and in its functioning stem from changes in the glands of internal secretion that determine sexual maturity.

Because children mature at different rates, the growth spurt occurs during a wide range of ages. This difference is often a cause of anxiety for the adolescent. When a girl makes an Alice-in-Wonderland gain in height, leaving her classmates far behind, she often asks herself, "Am I normal?" When a late-maturing boy fails to grow, he may wonder, "Will I always be a little runt?"

Moreover, each part of the body is changing at different rates. For example, growth in height may be rapid, without a corresponding growth in the circulatory system. These variations in development of different parts of the body increase physiological instability and may lead to emotional instability. The physical body is so much a part of the self that when it changes noticeably in form the individual, in a very real sense, loses himself. Many youngsters of this in-between age fluctuate between childish and adult activities. At one moment they are magnificently grown up and sophisticated; at another moment they are children again.

Throughout this period children need parents, even though they resent adult interference. One gifted fourteen-year-old girl described vividly the role her understanding parents played in helping her through this transition period. She said:

I was lucky—and I can thank my parents for it. Through the years, they had bored into me enough sense so that I finally realized what a silly fool I was being and cut it out P.D.Q. They didn't take me and say, "This is awful, you must stay home and never see those dreadful children again." They just let me go, having the faith that I would find out myself the hard way. Well,

I did. And I'm glad in a way that I went through it. I learned a lot of things from it, and learned them by experience, the best way to learn. . . .

. . . I think that parents are by far the most important. Every single kid I know who is in a mess, without *any* exception, has some kind of family trouble in one way or another. I think that my parents reared me the best way a child could be reared, and I will be eternally grateful. Ever since I could think for myself at all—I have. I've always made my own decisions, and carried them out, learning through experience. If my decisions were wrong, I soon found out—and I found out *myself*. I knew they were wrong, but if I had been told by my parents they were wrong, I would be very reluctant to accept it.

However, this had to be done tactfully—I mustn't get too independent—for, after all, I was and am young. Naturally, I don't know all the answers, and some wrong decisions, carried out without advice, would lead to serious consequences. So, somehow, my mother and father were so reasonable and understanding that, instead of reacting to this freedom by becoming wild and very distant from them, I became closer. And I confided in them more than average. This was because I realized that if I asked their advice about something it would be good, and yet I didn't have to worry that they would make my decision. . . . Truly, the children I feel genuine pity for . . . are those who don't feel that they can confide in their parents.³

The teacher, too, who is able to maintain the kind of relationship just described is a source of strength and stability to adolescents who desire support but resist domination.

Adolescence begins for girls with the first menstruation, which may occur from nine to eighteen years. Boys show characteristic signs of puberty between twelve and nineteen years of age. The average for girls is around thirteen and a half years; for boys, about a year later. The child who matures early has a longer time to make adolescent adjustments than the child who matures late and consequently has to make the transition from childhood to adult responsibilities in a relatively short time. During periods of war the length of the transition period is reduced still more by the pressure of society on adolescents to grow up quickly so that they can

³ Ruth Strang, *Investing in Yourself*, pp. 80–81. Consumer Education Study. National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C., 1945.

fight or work. During periods of unemployment, they are forced to be dependent long after they are ready for the work experience so essential for their social status as adults.

In the period from fourteen to nineteen years the death rate increases nearly 100 per cent. Tuberculosis, syphilis, dementia praecox, and heart disease are major menaces to youth. According to the report of one state, mental disorders are ten times as frequent as in the preadolescent period. The accident rate is high: it heads the list of causes of death.

Variations in mental ability are fully as great as physical differences. They cover a range from imbecile to genius. Growth in mental ability continues during this period and shows the influence of educational environment. More rapid growth may be expected in the early than in the late teens. Even those who advance more slowly continue to gain after the average group has shown a tendency toward a decrease in rate. By the end of the adolescent period many individuals have not reached their highest level of intelligence. They keep on growing during college years. Each individual has his ups and downs; the curve of mental growth for each is unique.

Most of all, the adolescent needs to find himself—his most acceptable self. The past is still with him; the present impinges upon him; the future looms large. Youth want a vigorous, challenging appeal—the appeal of an abundant life, of an opportunity to test their strength. For example, "Crime doesn't pay," does not appeal to them; positive goals and values do.

The physical, physiological, and intellectual changes, which have been briefly described, are of less significance than their meaning to the individual adolescent. In order to help him understand these changes, it is necessary for the counselor to know how early childhood experiences have influenced him and are still operating, what cultural conditions are affecting him at present, and what are the goals toward which he is working and the resources he is using in surmounting obstacles.

If a child grows up under distressing circumstances, he develops ways—good or bad—of coping with people. Too

often parents and teachers unwittingly reinforce unhealthy trends. They encourage excessive docility and dependence by their approval. By this misplaced sympathy they reinforce the tendency to give up easily. By a false front of kindness and considerateness, they evoke a surface submission.

If the child's needs are not satisfied in constructive ways, they persist as drives to secure affection, attention, prestige, security, adventure, power. Karen Horney⁴ has described three attitudes, any one of which may become predominant and determine conduct. They are manifested in the following types of persons:

1. Those who move toward people. They cling to others, expecting their personal relationships to solve their problems. They comply readily; never feel sure of themselves. They are preoccupied with what others expect them to think and try to develop qualities that make them lovable. They are soft, generous, considerate. They are the "good" children—affectionate, sympathetic, compliant to all appearances. Underneath, however, they may have sharp claws that hurt other people.

2. Those who move against people. They see the world as hostile, and become aggressive. By making themselves strong, they are able to fight, dominate, exploit. They value strength, power, relentlessness; they show contempt for weakness, yieldingness.

3. Those who move away from people. They withdraw, want to be left alone, do not face their conflicts with reference to people. They avoid close ties, live secluded lives. Under their surface solicitude for others, they may have a sadistic trend expressed in frustrating the expectation and joy of others. Their withdrawal may be an unconscious effort to avoid conflicts that would be precipitated by closer contacts.

These trends are present in varying degrees in all people. They become more perceptible during adolescence.

The motivations of adolescents are many. Different investigators report different motives. From a questionnaire

⁴ Karen Horney, *Our Inner Conflicts*. W. W. Norton and Company, New York, 1945.

study of 108 girls thirteen and a half to nineteen years of age M. D. Vernon⁵ reported the following drives: social conformity, humanitarianism, independence, security, overflowing energy, desire to appear superior, dominance, display, pleasure, and variety.

There is another side of adolescence, represented by the teen-age thoughts obtained by Helen W. Gray in response to the assignment: "Make a list of the loveliest things you know, persons not counted."

A very pretty and popular girl wrote:

The canter of a horse.
Moss hanging from trees.
The wind on your face.
The smell of eucalyptus.
Sleeping out under the stars.

A star athlete wrote:

The sparkling glassware used in chemistry.
The roar of machinery.
To hear the sea beating upon the rocks.
The sound of the wind whistling through the rigging of a ship.
To know what it is like to be free of worry of all kinds.

And glancing here and there I found:

Mass in the morning with the organ playing.
Satisfaction of helping some one.
A quiet afternoon alone.
"The Star-Spangled Banner" waving in the air.
Pleasure of doing something well.
The feel of the bat swinging at the ball.
The first deep breath of fresh air in the morning.
The feeling of bed after a hard day's work.⁶

In order to understand an adolescent it is important to know:

In which direction has he been moving?

Which is the self that is acceptable; which unacceptable?

⁵ M. D. Vernon, "Characteristic Motivation in the Activities of School Girls," *British Journal of Psychology*, 19:121-143, October, 1938.

⁶ Helen W. Gray, "'Teen-Age Thoughts,'" *New York Times Magazine*, p. 29, April 11, 1943.

If his more acceptable self coincides with cultural demands, are there other strong trends within himself that are causing conflict?

What is he doing to resolve the conflict?

This kind of understanding of underlying drives and ways in which each adolescent is attempting to harness them is most important. If he does not learn to understand himself, to accept himself, and to adapt himself to the demands of society, he is unhappy, unable to enjoy life, feels discouraged. He needs to learn how to bear a necessary degree of "socialized anxiety" that makes him put forth effort to attain the goals of a culture that cares about right and wrong. He needs to learn to win the happiness that comes from overcoming difficulties in the external world or in his personal life.

Adolescence is a flexible transition period. Therein lies its danger and its opportunity. Development may take a turn for better or for worse. The direction depends largely on conditions in his home, school, and neighborhood and on guidance. With the help of an understanding counselor, adolescents will make progress in recognizing and realizing their most acceptable adult selves. The role of counseling in some aspects of adolescent development will be briefly described in the rest of this chapter.

✓ Opportunities for Student Counseling ✓

There are two main types of counseling opportunities— (1) those in which every student is helped to develop in his own best way and (2) those in which individuals are helped in some crisis or difficulty. In the first situation counselor and student explore, appraise, and plan. In the second situation they direct their attention to the particular choice to be made or the problem or difficulty to be solved. Included under the second heading are emotional difficulties, problems of boy-girl relationships, family relationships, health, so-called discipline problems, failure in one or more subjects, choice of course and further education, and choice and preparation for a vocation.

Actually, problems never come singly. Problems of health, scholarship, and social adjustment often occur simultaneously. Recognizing this complexity, the teacher-counselor works along many lines. For example, in the case of a sixteen-year-old boy whose scholastic record was barely above average, whose food habits were poor, and who had begun to smoke and keep late hours, the English teacher did the following things:

1. She always found time to make some pleasant personal comment several times a day.

2. She gave him a free period once a week to talk about anything that had been bothering him and to gain a new orientation to himself.

3. She gave informal reading tests to see where he was having difficulty in reading his assignments.

4. She helped him plan a more suitable course of study.

5. She encouraged him to join a reading club, a dramatic club, and a basketball team. After the boy's interest in basketball was well established, the coach told him confidentially that he would have to gain weight, get regular hours of sleep, and stop smoking to stay on the team.

6. She asked him in English class to exhibit an airplane he had built in industrial arts and explain how he had made it. Students crowded around him afterward to hear more about it.

7. In casual conversations with other teachers she helped them to gain more understanding of the boy so that they would meet his needs better in their classrooms.

The teacher-counselor works in these indirect ways, as well as through his counseling relationship with the student.

Counseling Leading to Self-Discovery. Too frequently counselors spend most of their time with students who make trouble and leave the others to take care of themselves. This should not be. The following is an example of a "normal" case—a boy who was unlikely to make trouble for other people because he was so passive. The boy presented no obvious symptoms but came to the counselor of his own accord. He said he wanted "vocational testing," but in back

of this request was a desire to map out his life, to get a blueprint or a design for living. This, of course, was not possible. No one can chart another person's life by means of tests. Tests are useful as a guide to next steps in learning, but they do not determine what vocation a person should follow or what kind of life he should lead. In a short series of interviews this boy gained perspective and worked out a plan for achieving independence from his parents without causing them too much pain. His life will probably be more happy and stable than it would have been without the counselor's assistance.

Counseling is viewed by some as a field that only the expert dare enter. Yet at times a student needs only someone who can help him gain perspective on his problem and perhaps suggest a practical solution that he would not have thought of himself. At other times he may need to feel that there is someone who is sympathetic and understands the pressures and strains under which he is living. In many instances a single interview with a student will insure that he is making a satisfactory adjustment or will provide the slight amount of assistance that he requires.

Another case illustrates the work of a teacher-counselor with limited time but having excellent cumulative records for each pupil. The counseling was reinforced by a core course in which pupils made an intensive study of occupational fields and preparation for them. This study included an interview with a person engaged in the occupation in which each pupil was particularly interested.

Before meeting the pupil, the counselor studied and synthesized the following information from the cumulative record:

Eleanor was an only child, sixteen years of age, and in the younger half of the senior class.

Her father was a professional man, whom she characterized as "easy to get along with." Her mother was not employed, and, according to Eleanor, was sympathetic but "a trifle touchy." Her parents did not seem to agree in their methods of treating her.

Her elementary school record was satisfactory, except in the

fifth grade after she had returned from a year abroad. At that time she had difficulty with her work and was tutored for three months. Defective eyesight was detected and corrected in this year. In the sixth grade her real interests seemed childish to the teachers, although she assumed intellectual interests that pleased her parents.

Her IQ, as determined by the Binet test and several group intelligence tests, was around 110, about fifteen points lower than the average of the group in which she was placed. In reading, as measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test in the tenth grade, her comprehension score—grade equivalent of 13.1—was about the same as the class average; her score on the Cross English Test in the eleventh grade was 144, ten points below the class average. On the Inglis Test of English Vocabulary in the same grade her score was 92, which was ten points below the class median. Her score on the American Council Alpha French Test was 118, whereas the class average was 135. She obtained her best grades in biology and social studies. She played the violin and was a member of two orchestras.

Throughout high school her marks were equally distributed among B's, B-'s, and C's. Her only A was in music. Her rank in the junior year was 24 in a class of 40. In this school, Eleanor's academic record represented hard work and satisfactory accomplishment for her.

Eleanor's introspective reports revealed a lack of self-confidence and ability to get along with her classmates. She thought herself unpopular, yet she had been elected president of her class one year and secretary of an important school organization. She felt that other persons had a better time than she, although her report of activities during one week included a symphony concert, a party, movies, an auto ride, and the theater. She also felt that her teachers were indifferent to her. She disliked mathematics but enjoyed science and literature. Her greatest desire was to be successful as a physician or psychologist.

The cumulative record also showed that she had taken a scholastic aptitude test and had received a letter from a college of high scholastic standing saying that her aptitude test score was in the third quarter—too low for admission to that college.

This accumulated information gave the teacher-counselor a picture of a conscientious girl, working to the limits of her capacity and stimulated by her parents' ambition for her

and by competition with classmates superior to her in mental ability. Her level of aspiration was too high for her to maintain. She would not be able to enter or succeed in a college having a scholastic level relatively as high as the secondary school she was attending. To try to maintain this level would result in constant strain and pressure and neglect of the social aspects of her development. Overly protected and the center of attention at home in the role of an only child, she had felt, by contrast, neglected and inferior at school.

Before the interview, Eleanor had learned a great deal in her core course about requirements of colleges and the world of work and had made tentative educational and vocational plans. These included the choice of a university where the competition would not be so keen as in the colleges favored by her parents. She would have time for social activities without feeling the constant pressure of academic work and could continue her study of the violin in an affiliated school of music. Vocationally she was looking forward to some kind of work in the field of public health or to a career as hospital laboratory technician. This tentative plan showed that Eleanor had gained considerable knowledge of herself, of colleges, of the world of work, and of their interrelations. The teacher-counselor listened to the plan as Eleanor had worked it out, encouraged her to review the thinking that had gone into the plan, and gave hearty approval of the self-direction and analysis she had made. At every point the girl's plan was in line with the synthesis the teacher-counselor had made from the data in the cumulative record.

In this case the teacher-counselor could be practically non-directive because (1) the pupil was intelligent and had developed a mature attitude toward herself, (2) she had had the advantage of group study of educational and vocational opportunities, and (3) she had been encouraged by the school program as a whole to be objective, analytical, and self-directive.

In another situation, the students were far more in need of a skilled counselor's time. Their cumulative records were very inadequate; their curriculum included no time for

consideration of educational and vocational opportunities; they had had practically no experience in making choices and plans. For this reason a series of nine interviews was necessary to help a bewildered boy gain a sense of direction.

Stanley, at seventeen, was in his junior year of high school. Behind him was an academic record of low marks in every subject except physical education and manual training. In the current term he was failing in mathematics. Still, despite his lack of success in school subjects, he had seldom been tardy or absent. Perhaps his attendance record was so good because his pleasant smile and manner and good sportsmanship had won him friends among the students and teachers and had made school a friendly, pleasant place.

He thought of himself as "an average person, no smarter than most average people." He said, "I like the open country and can't stand to work in an office. Most of my difficulties in high school come from not knowing how to study and work. I like sports and play them most of the time. That is why, I believe, I have never really chosen my vocation, although my parents have been after me for a long time to put my mind down to something for the future." He stated that he would like to become "a person who knew what he wanted, knew how to study and work and finish a job that he had started." Here, indeed, was a challenge to the counselor.

Two group tests of intelligence—the American Council Psychological Examination and the Otis Quick Scoring Intelligence Test—both placed him on a little above the lowest quarter of students of his age and grade who had taken the test. On an individual test, the Wechsler-Bellevue, however, he was ahead of his chronological age and rated as "bright normal." In this test he had the greatest difficulty with the mathematical items—a difficulty that likewise showed up clearly in his school record. The Iowa Silent Reading Test given in the ninth grade showed him to be above average in reading ability.

Accepting the group test results as conclusive evidence of his real ability, his teachers believed him to be below average in scholastic aptitude. They did not attribute his vacillating, inconsistent achievement and need for prodding to lack of a sense of direction and purpose. His homeroom teacher, while recognizing his social ability, had accepted his poor

school record as evidence that he should be trained for a trade.

Stanley's own limited work experience had reinforced his interest in manual work. One summer he had had a clerical job and "got along all right," although he had not expected to like indoor work. The next summer he had taken a job in the open and liked it much better. His ratings on the Kuder Preference Record, given in his senior year, confirmed the boy's expressed interest in outdoor, adventurous, and mechanical occupations. Apparently his interest in these directions was strong.

Thus far the school had failed to give this boy the experiences, information, and counseling he needed. It failed to help him to gain perspective at the beginning of his high school course, to recognize his potentialities, to gain a sense of direction congruent with his abilities and interests, to connect the subject matter with something vital in his life; it had also failed to teach so skillfully that, even with his special limitations, he could learn.

This, then, was the situation when Stanley was introduced to the counselor. What could she do in a series of nine interviews, each forty-five minutes in length? The following excerpts from a more complete record illustrate the counseling procedure actually employed.

First interview: The counselor greeted Stanley and explained that she was meeting a few of the students whose questionnaires indicated that they might like to have this time to think about their abilities, their plans for the future, and how to get started on them.

Stanley began the conversation by saying that he thought this was a good idea, that the school should have a full-time counselor who could help pupils. As it was now, he said, "It isn't until your senior year that you go to the counselor for help on colleges and by then it is too late and just too bad if you haven't taken the subjects that the college you want to attend requires."

Then really warming up, he said, "Gosh, I'm just an ordinary boy. I don't know what I should be, but my folks keep after me all the time. They look at me and say: 'You're big enough to be deciding what you want to do; do you want to be a doctor

or an engineer, or what?' I guess I am big enough, but I still don't know."

As the counselor smiled sympathetically, he said: "I wish I did know, for it sure would be easier. You see, in this school, they teach for the bright students, and I'm only average, I guess. Anyway, I don't want to be a doctor or engineer, or any of those things."

COUNSELOR: And you feel that it's one of those things that your folks would like you to be?

STANLEY: That's it, I guess. I'd like to please them, but if you're not made that way, you just aren't. My father keeps saying to me, "Why don't you have a hobby? Other boys have, and a hobby's a good idea because then you have something to interest you besides your work." He's right, I guess; but I go in for sports all the time, and when I get home I guess I don't do much but eat and sleep; I'm tired by then.

C.: Then, in a way, sports are your hobby.

S. (beaming): That's it. Sure wish my father could see it that way. You know what I'd like to be? A pilot. I've read lots of sea stories and I worked on a boat this summer. It was swell. I've thought, too, seeing I like sports, that I'd go on to college and maybe try to be a coach—only I guess I should know absolutely what I want to be.

C.: You feel that other students have made up their minds before they get to college?

S.: Well, a lot of them here in high school—the ones that will amount to anything—have.

C. (Explained that a great many boys and girls hadn't made up their minds definitely even at the time they finished college; that it didn't mean that a student wouldn't amount to anything if he were undecided; that colleges were so set up that the first year or two years were more or less general for everyone and that you then majored in the thing in which you were most interested.)

S.: Phew! Why didn't someone tell me that before? I wouldn't have been worrying so much. It gets you down to have your folks always asking you to make up your mind. You begin to wonder if you've got even part of one to make up.

C. (Explained the vocational inventory as an aid to making up one's mind. Stanley seemed interested and the counselor promised to bring one next time.)

S. (Talked about his family's attitude toward him; his mother's

desire for him to be outstanding like her father.) She's fond of me, but I guess I'm a disappointment to her because I couldn't ever be as bright or successful as her father.

C. (Reassured him concerning his own possibilities and explained that many boys and girls find it difficult to be exactly what their parents think they should be.)

S.: Maybe—since I'm getting everything off my chest like this—you could help me. Well, it's this way— (He explained how he was failing in math, and discussed the advisability of getting a tutor in it. The interview ended with Stanley expressing eagerness for another appointment.)

Second interview: After they had greeted each other, Stanley told about asking his subject teacher about getting a tutor. The teacher had not liked the idea, and the counselor asked Stanley if he would like her to take the matter up with the teacher.

S.: That would be O.K. if you really want to help me that much.

The counselor then gave him the Kuder Preference Record to mark at home. After that, she said she had also brought some questions that might be interesting for him and at the same time provide a basis for learning more definitely what his ability was. They talked a few minutes about the group tests that had been given in school and about this individual test. Stanley seemed ready to tackle anything, so he started the Wechsler-Bellevue test. The counselor asked if he would like to continue with it.

S.: You bet. It's real interesting, not like the tests we have in school. I'll see you next week, and thanks.

Third interview: The counselor told Stanley of her conversation with his teacher about studying with the tutor he had had before; both Stanley and the counselor were favorable to the idea. He then continued with the Wechsler-Bellevue test. At the end of the period, as he was leaving, he paused to say: "I don't quite know what to do. My mother said this week that if I was going to fall down in my other subjects because of working all the time on the one I'm failing in, I could drop it if I failed it again this next marking period."

C. (after a few seconds): Do you feel that it would be best to drop it?

S.: Gosh, I don't know. But for the first time I failed a test in history. I never made high grades in that before but I never failed one either. And French, which was pretty easy at first, is getting harder; and I ought to put more time on it.

C.: Would it help any to try tutoring in math until the end of this marking period, and see whether tutoring does make it easier for you, so you could give more time to other subjects?

S.: Maybe that's the thing. Football season is over now; that means more time, although basketball is starting. I don't see how I'll need math anyway; but I could try tutoring and see.

C.: Why don't you think it over? Discuss it with the tutor if you wish, and do whatever you feel is the best thing.

S.: O.K., I will. Thanks a lot. I'll see you next Wednesday then.

Fourth interview: Stanley brought the Kuder Preference Record which he had marked at home. He had gone ahead with his plans for a tutor and had figured out that he could have a tutoring period for a half hour between the time school got out and basketball practice started. The counselor scored the Kuder blank and discussed each area in which he had indicated interest. Stanley tried to tie up his experience with school subjects and his vocational and avocational experiences with the interests indicated by the inventory, thus arriving at a clearer picture of what his interests really were.

To clarify his interests and goals still further, the counselor introduced the idea of Stanley's writing his autobiography.

S.: Gee, I never thought of that. I guess you would see yourself better if you got it down in writing. I'm not very good at writing, though.

C.: It's just an idea, Stanley; and you don't have to do it unless you want to. I particularly don't want you to take time away from your studies to do it.

S.: I guess I can do it all right. I could just take it along easy and maybe get it done in a couple of weeks. Was that the way you thought about it?

C.: Yes, I think that's the best way to do it. Why don't you try it, then, and let me know how you come along?

S.: O.K., I will, and I'll tell you about what the tutor says next Wednesday. O.K.?

C.: Right. See you next Wednesday, then.

Fifth interview: Stanley appeared late.

C.: Did you forget about us today, Stanley?

S.: Yes, m'am. I'm sorry.

C.: That's O.K. We all forget at times. How's it going?

S.: (Explained that the plan for tutoring was not working out

and he felt he'd better drop the subject now and take it over next term, as he was sure he'd flunk it.)

C.: Why do you think you should take it over? Do you really need it to graduate?

S. (brightening up): No, I don't have to have it. I know I can do better in my other subjects if I don't take it.

C. (Consulted the records and found that credit in mathematics was not necessary for graduation. They then studied the requirements of some technical schools and colleges in which he was interested and discussed further educational plans.)

Sixth interview: At the beginning Stanley talked about his girl friend and her mother, who were very much on his mind. Toward the end of the interview they discussed the counseling process:

C.: The important thing is what it means to you, Stanley, and I'd like you to be thinking about that.

S.: I've been thinking about it a lot. I know it has made me think more. I told my mother, and she said I would have to think about it myself and see what it means. I guess it will help me to know more about what I'm to be.

C. (Explained that there were no tests that would tell him definitely what he should be, but that next week she would go over them all with him.)

S.: Well, I know it's helping me. I never thought too much before. I see things clearer now. I know I got another failure in math, and my mark went down in social studies, as I was afraid it would; but after I drop math I'll bring the others up. That's all clearer now. It helps.

Seventh interview:

S.: Hello. I have the autobiography. It isn't very long, though. I had my father type it up for me.

C.: That's fine, Stanley. Thanks. What did your father think of your autobiography?

S. (laughing): He said that I certainly hadn't learned as much in high school as he thought I had and that he didn't think my English was very good.

C.: And how do you feel?

S. (getting very red): Oh, me! I've got other troubles.

C.: Troubles?

S. (Talked at length about his girl friend and her mother.)

Eighth interview: After greeting Stanley and exchanging a few words with him, the counselor immediately spread out all

the available information and began to consider it with him, point by point as follows:

1. His idea of himself: a boy who is

Good in sports.

Average or below average in academic subjects, because

a. He spends so much time in sports.

b. His study methods are poor.

c. High school instruction is not on a level he can understand.

The counselor commented that his appraisal of himself on the questionnaire was good, except that he had underestimated his real mental ability, as indicated on the Wechsler-Bellevue test. His better-than-average ability became evident to him as he examined the results of the test.

2. Goals and purposes:

To become a person who knows what he wants.

To get good marks in school.

Here they discussed the fact that he got his greatest satisfaction from outdoor activity. They considered the effect on these goals of failure in mathematics. This subject was useful to him:

a. In passing examinations for college entrance.

b. In raising his general score on the usual intelligence tests.

c. In helping him to round out his general proficiency.

The counselor pointed out the importance of starting from the beginning and building a foundation in this field and made suggestions for tutoring and the use of workbooks.

3. Educational plans: Possibilities were—

a. To enter an academy for the training of merchant seamen.

b. To go to college where he could major in physical education or recreational work and decide there more definitely about his vocation.

Here they discussed his poor high school record in contrast with his apparent scholastic aptitude. They also faced the fact that low achievement would make it difficult for him to get into college under the current overcrowded conditions.

4. Family relationships: They faced the conflict between the goals his parents had in mind for him and his own inclinations. The questionnaire and the personality inventory both showed that he was sensitive to his parents' wishes, wanted to please them, and yet also wanted to go ahead with his own plans.

5. Vocational interests:

- a. Pilot or other vocation involving adventure at sea.
- b. Physical education coach and teacher.

They saw that being a coach might combine his own interests and those of his parents. They also noted that the interest blank showed no strong interests; this might mean that he was flexible in his vocational choice and might develop new interests as his experience grew.

Ninth interview: This was the final interview.

S.: Good morning. This won't be the last one, will it?

C.: Yes, I'm sorry that it must be, Stanley.

S.: Oh, I had hoped—well, that you might have found you'd have some more time.

D.: Did you have something in mind Stanley?

S.: No, m'am, just that I think these have helped me a lot. I've been thinking about our talks, the way you said; and it seems to me that I know a lot more things now. Something else is funny, too. It used to be that I had to read my history a lot of times to get any sense out of it; but lately it seems that if I read it one time and then look over it, I know it almost perfect. My other subjects don't show much improvement yet, but I think they will. Maybe it's that I used to worry about the subject I was failing instead of working on my other subjects. (He again discussed the teaching methods that made the subject hard for him.) But now I've got it straight in my own mind that I'll drop math now and get workbooks so I can review it from the beginning myself. Did you get the names of the books?

C. (Gave him the references.) I'm glad you're going to do the reviewing, Stanley. You will find it helpful on several counts.

S.: My mother said I should have written down all the things you told me last time—that I probably got them mixed up. Is there any way she could come in and talk with you? She wants to, and I'd like her to, too.

C.: I'd be very glad to talk with her if you would both like it, Stanley. I shall be here on Friday of this week. Why don't you see if she can come in then. I'll be glad to wait after school to see her, if that will be more convenient for her.

S.: Gee, thanks a lot. I sure will; and I'll tell you Friday.

C.: How does she feel about these talks we've been having?

S.: She thinks they're a good idea except that I couldn't remember everything. We wrote to one college right away, but we

haven't heard yet. What course do you think I should register in?

C. (Explained again that the first two years of college were fairly general and would lay the foundation for a number of vocations in which he was interested.)

S.: One of my relatives went to —— University. I thought about seeing if there was any chance of a scholarship for sports there that I could get, the way he did. You know, I've changed. I'm learning about studying. It was mainly that I came to school just for the sports before. Now when I know I have some work to do, I don't put it off until the last minute. And when I sit down to study, I think about what we've said and it makes better sense. And it's easier to do. It sure helps. I always wanted to know what I could do, too; and now I have a better idea. Besides, I used to worry about what I was going to be and now I know that there are many things I might be. . . . Anyway, I don't feel as lost or queer about not making up my mind, now that I know others have been in the same boat. Funny, too, it did something else. You know my girl's mother says that one thing she has against me is that I can't talk; but I don't have any trouble talking with you—we keep going, don't we?

C.: Yes, we've kept going for nine periods now, Stanley.

S.: Gee, has it been that many? Gosh, you wouldn't think you could talk just about school and the way you feel and such, that much. I sure have learned a lot, though; and it helps.

The bell rang at this point, and the counselor said she would like to hear how he made out and that she hoped he would stop in to see her if he wanted to talk things over further.

Perhaps the best summary of this series of interviews is the boy's own words, already quoted. He felt that some of his anxiety about his vocational choice had been relieved, that he saw more clearly possible courses of action he could take, and that he had become able to study more efficiently. Equally important were the more hopeful idea he had acquired of himself and the satisfying experience of having been able to talk freely with an understanding person. These results were obtained because the counselor explained the counseling process to him, was a good listener, spoke the boy's language, responded to his feelings, and used tests and inventories only as they contributed to an understanding of his

interests and ability. The boy, on his part, took an active responsibility in the counseling process and found the relationship itself a satisfying experience. The testing situations likewise proved to be experiences in which he found himself successful and interested.

The apparent loss of rapport at the beginning of the fifth interview may have been due to too much direction on the part of the counselor in the previous interview or to any of a number of other factors, such as disappointment over the failure of the tutoring plan or conditions at home or at school. If it was due to the suggested autobiography, then his response to anything that savored of a school assignment was significant. At this point he may have thought of the counselor as a teacher who was interested only in his mastery of subject matter, instead of as a person who was concerned with his mastery of subject matter only insofar as it helped him to do the things he wanted to do and be the kind of person he ought to become.

The interviewer might be criticized for not having talked with the mother and father and for not having worked with the teachers and administrators more closely. Actually, counseling in this school was difficult because of a lack of full and understanding cooperation on the part of everyone concerned. The insight gained by the boy was all to the good, but it needed to be reinforced by all the persons in his environment working together.

In a counseling situation in which the student seeks to understand himself and get a sense of direction, the approach, of course, would vary with the individual. A generally effective pattern, however, would include (1) listening to the student's thoughts about what he can do and wants to do with his life, (2) helping him in the process of appraisal by questions and comments that emphasize or call his attention to important aspects and by appropriate tests and inventories, and (3) making creative suggestions as he shows readiness and need for them. There are two main avenues of adjustment: (1) reducing the environmental pressures and strains to a level at which the individual can cope with them and (2) helping him to pull himself together and change his

attitude toward himself and others. Mother Goose put it this way:

For every evil under the sun
There is a remedy—or, there is none
If there be one, go and find it,
If there be none, never mind it.

Emotionally Disturbed Students. When, without adequate cause, a student cries frequently; is restless, worried, lacking in self-confidence, timid, stubborn, withdrawing; has temper tantrums; or shows other signs of emotional immaturity or disturbance, the teacher-counselor tries to understand why. Emotional instability may arise from feelings of insecurity or need for affection or recognition. It may indicate inexperience or merely imitation of some member of the family. Often an adolescent clings to childish ways because he has not learned better and more mature ways of coping with the complexities of his enlarging world. Emotional behavior is the individual's way of getting something he wants or of coping with a disturbing condition. The generally helpful adjustments the classroom teacher makes in the group may not touch the unique conditions giving rise to the individual's emotional behavior. From his observations of students and his conversation with them, the sensitive teacher-counselor can recognize those who need individual help. If these cases are neglected in their early stages, the chances of successful treatment are greatly reduced.

In every grade the teacher should be alert to note those students who give the impression of being "queer" or different from adolescents they have known, those who show sudden changes in their behavior, and those who seem to be becoming increasingly withdrawn, unhappy, moody. Some time ago George K. Pratt gave a useful list of "danger signals" that teacher-counselors should recognize as possible indications of nervous breakdowns.⁷ He mentions as most serious overconscientiousness, various kinds of morbid guilt reactions, and extremely "model" behavior. Second to these,

⁷ George K. Pratt, "Nervous Breakdown: A Teen Age Danger," *Parents*, 6:14-15, March, 1931.

and equally important in some cases, are seclusive, withdrawing, or shut-in tendencies. Individuals showing these tendencies are "poor mixers," retreat into themselves, and brood when criticized or scolded. Marked depression and persistent, pervasive feelings of inferiority or discouragement likewise should be regarded as possible danger signals. An intense, exclusive interest in religion may indicate that all is not well with the individual's emotional life. Certainly the appearance of "queer" habits, such as excessive hand-washing, fear of dirt or germs, and a compulsive urge to arrange objects always in a particular order, will cause the teacher-counselor justifiable concern. They indicate the need for more expert help than the teacher has time or training to give. According to one survey, about 20 per cent of the students needed psychiatric treatment. The teacher, however, should try to distinguish between pervasive, persistent tendencies that do not improve under the best environmental conditions he can provide and that require expert help, and behavior that represents merely transitory phases of development and are just as well ignored. It is the responsibility of the teacher-counselor to recognize danger signals, obtain whatever expert service is available, refer the case skillfully, and cooperate intelligently in the treatment.

In brief, the teacher contributes to the emotional development of students in several ways:

1. By being so well adjusted himself that he does not create problems in his students.
2. By understanding child and adolescent behavior so that he does not reinforce detrimental trends.
3. By detecting early signs of emotional disturbance.
4. By making adjustments in the group that are generally helpful.
5. By counseling individuals.
6. By referring serious cases for whatever expert assistance is available.

Since understanding behavior is essential to helping children grow up emotionally, the teacher should have knowledge of the influence of family attitudes and relationships and of the real meaning of common kinds of behavior. For example,

the "spoiled" child is usually the rejected child—the child who has been underfed emotionally. He may have an abundance of material things but keeps demanding more to fill his emotional lack. On the other hand, the child who has grown up with plenty of real affection in his home is likely to be poised, considerate, cooperative.

Belligerent, chip-on-the-shoulder behavior often masks a deep feeling of inferiority. In time the arrogant, superior, cocksure attitude breaks down and may be followed by depression, doubt, resentment, bitterness; people avoid a person like this and thus accentuate his difficulty. Or there may be a tendency to be resigned and to adjust on a lower level of aspiration or withdraw from people and seek superiority through studiousness or the development of some special skill.

The overconscientious student's excessive effort to do the right thing is often encouraged by teachers who do not perceive the possible dangers ahead. Carried to excess, this tendency results in a growing detachment from social life and an unsatisfactory adjustment to reality. Fortunately, there are many opportunities for individuals of this kind to satisfy their need to be of service and thus to make wholesome use of their special personalities.

The student who is overdependent upon affection finds other kinds of success meaningless. All his interests, energies, and feelings center around the person to whom he has attached himself. He overreacts to frustration, shows undue despair and depression over a slight disappointment, feels humiliated when his affection is not reciprocated, fears being alone, feels that he lives in a hostile world. He may try hard to be loving and friendly but cannot succeed because he is too egocentric, too much concerned with his own fears. The counselor can help him to see the whole picture with all its harmful, crippling aspects and to recognize ways of making a better adjustment.

The so-called "crush" represents the tendency to cling to a member of the same sex. It may be an evidence of failure to establish the masculine or feminine role, or need for affection or for an outlet for sexual energy. Its incidence is highest in segregated schools and camps or other situations in which

access to the opposite sex is limited. In its mild form, a "crush" may be regarded as a normal and desirable transition stage of development bridging the gap between attachment to the parent and eventual marriage relationship. In its extreme and pathological form, it is recognized as homosexuality. These different layers of intensity in homosexual trends require different treatment. At the normal end of the scale, it can be utilized as a step in growth. When the friendship is becoming too exclusive, the individual can be helped to see how much more he or she can grow through contacts with persons of varied interests. Sometimes what seems to be a homosexual trend is only a delayed or arrested development that yields quite readily to treatment. When the tendency is deep-seated, the expert counselor may help the homosexually inclined individual to adjust to life as he finds it with his limitations. A homosexual pattern built over a period of years is difficult to overcome. The person usually makes progress when he recognizes homosexual tendencies as part of his make-up and total adjustment. When there are no psychotic elements, therapy is likely to be successful. Endocrine treatment has been disappointing.

Unless integration of the personality takes place through the three great natural forces—work, love, religion—aided by the counseling process, adolescent turmoil may be prolonged into adult life. Many individuals, on the surface, seem to live well-organized and rational lives but underneath have unresolved conflicts. Counseling helps to show them their resources for handling this undercurrent and ways in which they can work out better adjustments to the realities of their lives.

Social Relations. Failure in social relationships, as has already been suggested, is usually a symptom of more deep-seated causes. Insecurity may be at the root of the widely different behavior of the girl who is "boy-crazy" and the one who is "boy-shy." In the case of a college girl who was moving rapidly toward promiscuity, the following factors seemed to be involved: anxiety about her health and social status, rejection by her mother and by the college, inability

to attract the boy in whom she was really interested, anxiety about not living up to the role she was expected to play in life, some confusion about her sex role, and a sense of emptiness that she thought a love relationship might fill. This girl was obviously bothered by her sex relationships and wanted to spread her perplexities out before a person who was objective and could help her to handle the situation. She needed to get a clear idea of her more acceptable self, to recognize the plus values in her experiences, and to learn how these experiences could contribute to her development. Many teacher-counselors in dealing with sex problems make the mistake of trying to deal with sex as a separate aspect of life rather than as an intrinsic part of the total personality.

Another common mistake is to ignore the student's present attitude and information about sex. Fritz Redl⁸ compares counseling in this area to packing a half-full suitcase. Instead of jamming in more things, the sensible person would first sort out what is already in the suitcase and then repack it. Similarly the counselor should encourage the student to tell how he (or if he requires a more impersonal approach) how boys and girls of his age feel about sex.

Masturbation is another way in which many children get satisfaction that should be obtained on a higher level of maturity. Often the teacher-counselor will find that the practice is a serious cause of anxiety. Worry about it absorbs intellectual energy and may lead to failure in academic subjects. Glib, general reassurance usually does not help; specific reassurance about the aspects of masturbation that are bothering the student and a clear-cut rejection of unsound beliefs often does help. However, it cannot be understood except as part of the individual's total personality, his family relations, and the culture in which he lives.

The counselor can obtain important clues to social relations from observing other persons' responses to the individual being studied. For example, Mary's isolation from the other children became more apparent as she grew older. Her only pleasure in life seemed to be reading books that she

⁸ Fritz Redl, "The Technique of Sex Education," in *Sex Education: Facts and Attitudes* (Revised), pp. 24-28. Child Study Association of America, 1940.

got from the public library. Recognizing her need for social contacts, the eighth grade teacher asked her to be in charge of the small school library, with several girls assisting her. A change in attitude and better relationship with other pupils followed her success in this work.

The teacher-counselor realizes that he cannot make a boy or girl popular. In fact, giving the student in need of social approval special attention may actually mark him as "teacher's pet" and alienate him from his peers. It is therefore necessary to work with the human environment. It is especially difficult to develop the social program in the junior high school, where differences in maturity and diversity of backgrounds and interests are so great. With such a diverse group, it is necessary to provide a variety of recreation for young people at different stages of development.

Family Relations. Some of the home problems of students are indicated by quotations from high school pupils:

My mother died last year and I am sort of lost.

The financial problems of the family concern me; also my difficulty in certain subjects in my school work and a serious inferiority complex about myself and life in general.

The school could help by showing more personal interest and considering a child's home training before condemning him.

My parents have been having trouble lately and may separate. Then I may have to live with my brother and leave school here. I should like to have a long talk with Miss M—— and see if there was some way I could talk to my parents and keep them together.

Adolescents are frequently in conflict with members of the family. They complain about parents who persist in their possessiveness or insist on adherence to old-world customs or beliefs that run counter to the modern world. They have problems of competing with a brighter older brother or sister or feel displaced by a younger, more engaging child.

They less frequently recognize family influences that may be more detrimental. When parents do not accept a child for what he is, when they try to make him what he is not,

when they give him the impression that he is valued for what he can do, not for himself, they often create anxiety and insecurity. The child senses that achievement is precarious, depending upon the suitability of the tasks assigned and the group in which he happens to be placed. Some parents openly reject the less able or attractive child of the family. They may characterize him as stupid, "dumb," awkward, selfish; and he may be so in comparison with the rest of the family. Nevertheless, it is his inalienable right as a human being, to be given opportunities to develop his best potentialities, however limited they are. Some recent experiments in animal psychology suggest that most serious of all is acceptance followed by rejection. For example, the teacher who is at first completely accepting and friendly and then suddenly clamps down often experiences an extreme reaction of hostility on the part of the individuals or group subjected to this sudden change of attitude.

Many parents are at fault, to be sure. But it does not help matters to blame them. Instead, the counselor should reinforce family integrity whenever possible. A word or two in praise of some good quality in the father or mother helps to build up family life. To the gifted child who says disdainfully that he is not like other members of the family, the counselor may say, "Yes, you are gifted—more so than other members of the family. But you have inherited your ability somewhere in the family tree." When a child is rejected because of lack of ability or attractiveness, the teacher-counselor may help him to accept himself and to attain success along some lines which the family prize.

The counselor can frequently help the child or adolescent develop a more understanding attitude toward his mother: "Mother has difficulty in loving you." "Mother has troubles of her own." One girl, for example, was able to reach a point where she could see how cruel her mother had been but realized that she had not wanted to be cruel. She was not only able to take a more sympathetic attitude toward her mother, but, having realized the effect of her mother's attitude, she no longer felt so guilty about her past behavior toward her mother. In the case of a boy who was going

through the process of psychological separation from his mother, a counselor was able to interpret skillfully his new insight. At one point the counselor said, "Don't you think this feeling of respect for your mother, which you now have, is more mature than your earlier feelings?" Thus the counselor served temporarily as a "backer-up" of the boy's new strivings for independence and helped him to work out his everyday relationships. At the same time the counselor, at the boy's request, talked with the mother and helped her to realize that when the boy discontinued his childish expression of affection it did not mean he no longer loved her.

In some cases little progress can be made in a student's school adjustment until attitudes or other conditions in the home are changed. This the teacher-counselor cannot do. He may make a helpful suggestion or two to parents, but he must rely on social workers and psychiatrists to make any fundamental changes in deep-seated parental attitudes and home conditions. The role of the teacher is developmental; it is to help parents help their children grow up right. Thus the younger the child, the greater the teacher's responsibility for parent education.

Health. The need for health counseling is evident in every survey of health conditions. Health problems are prevalent. Marked progress has been made in the control of communicable diseases, but accidents, mental disorders, and heart disease and cancer are increasing. Health conditions enter into every counseling situation. No matter what the apparent problem, attention should be given to the student's physical condition. Body, mind, and spirit are inseparable.

Every student should keep a basic, cumulative health record on which the school physician, private physician, camp doctor, physical education teacher, and others concerned with his health, record his health status and achievements. Such a record helps to coordinate the work of health specialists and serves as an incentive to the individual to improve his physical condition.

The teacher-counselor who is not an expert in health education should never prescribe diets or treatment. His

role is to encourage the student to take responsibility for his own health and to help him to use intelligently available resources for its improvement. The counselor's work should be reinforced by an effective program of health instruction and health service.⁹

Discipline Problems. A great deal of behavior that disturbs the class and the teacher is a natural reaction to school as the student perceives it. Under certain conditions, rebellion is a sign of healthy growth. The teacher need not look for deep-seated causes of transitory surface behavior; he can deal with it in the group. If, however, the behavior persists and seems to be affecting the individual or the group unfavorably, the teacher-counselor may work along these general lines:

1. Help the individual to understand why he behaved in that way—when did he begin to act that way? What led to the behavior? Under what circumstances does he misbehave? How does he feel about it? What seem to be the motives underlying the behavior? What satisfactions does he get from it? How is the behavior related to the kind of person he wants to become?

2. Remove or change, so far as possible, conditions that give rise to the undesirable behavior; as, for example, an inappropriate program of academic work or overemphasis on competition.

3. Establish a counseling relationship (see pages 252–255) in which the student achieves a new and better orientation toward himself and others.

Certain kinds of misbehavior occur frequently in schools and colleges: stealing, cheating, being tardy or truant, disturbing the group by “showing off” or being rude, and having temper tantrums. Students exhibiting these kinds of behavior should be treated rather than punished. A few suggestions for the understanding of these kinds of behavior may be helpful.

Stealing may arise from many different causes: actual need of essentials, equally real need of clothing and spending money to maintain status in the group, desire for adventure,

⁹ Margaret L. Leonard, *Health Counseling for Girls*. A. S. Barnes and Company, 1944.

conformity to values of a gang, disturbance over sex questions. Obviously a kindly talk and a discussion of how wrong it is to steal will not solve the problem; the counselor must deal with the causes, not the symptoms.

Cheating may indicate an unsuitable curriculum and poor methods of instruction coupled with pressure at home to achieve high marks. This combination of inability to do the academic work and parental demands may drive a student to cheating. The school may also be at fault in putting too much stress on marks and examinations rather than on individual growth. If personal development is emphasized, the futility of cheating becomes obvious. The morale of the group and attitude toward cheating is a determining factor—"It just isn't done" *versus* "Everybody cheats."

Tardiness and truancy likewise have their roots in an unsuitable curriculum and ineffective methods of teaching. Tardiness among children of low intelligence was practically eliminated in one school by making the first period in the morning highly interesting. They came willingly and promptly to school because they did not want to miss the fun. School tasks were associated with pleasantness rather than with unpleasantness.

A great deal of tardiness and absence is the fault of the parent, not the child. Irregularity of parental habits and schedules makes it difficult for some children to get to school on time. One sage suggestion was to "investigate the home and have the mother buy an alarm clock for herself, which should be set for going to bed as well as for getting up." The younger the child, of course, the more dependent he is upon the parents' habits of life. It is easy to see how unjust it might be to punish a child for absence or tardiness before investigating the causes.

One teacher handled the attendance problem in the following way: Miss M—— had 40 tenth grade girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years in her homeroom. Throughout the school absence was a serious problem that had been handled unsuccessfully in an administrative instead of a guidance way. The homeroom teacher reported her cases to the office, where a list of absentees in the whole school

was mimeographed each day and distributed to all teachers the following morning. Then the individual teachers checked their class attendance records of the previous day against this list to ascertain the "cutters." The student who had cut a class was reported to the office and to her official teacher. The office presumably took action after the third report was received for the same student. This system had not reduced absence from the class because no positive attitudes toward good attendance had been built, classes were not made sufficiently vital and important to the students, and the numbers of absentees were so large that it was impossible to confer with each one.

Under these conditions, Miss M—— attempted to improve attendance in her own room. After talking individually with several of her student leaders, she presented the problem frankly to the homeroom class as one on which she needed their help. What would they suggest? They decided to divide into committees, each trying to find a solution and report it in dramatic form to the class. For two weeks they spent the homeroom period in committee work with the teacher serving as consultant. Then the programs began and the other committees found time outside of class or at luncheon to perfect their programs. One of the programs took the form of an "absentee clinic," in which one student presented his problem and the others served as a "board of advisers." Another committee presented statistics of the number of days of absence and the causes of absence. They obtained these data by interviewing each student who had missed a class. They analyzed the reasons and showed how each kind of absence could be avoided in the future.

While this group work was going on, Miss M—— interviewed individually the students who showed no improvement in their attendance record. For example, Jane had been absent from school often and had been reported for cutting classes on numerous occasions. From the records, Miss M——noted that Jane was the oldest girl in the class and also the most intelligent. She had lost a year in elementary school because of illness and another year in high school because of poor attendance. In the first interview Jane as-

sumed the attitude that after all, it was her own business whether or not she attended classes. Miss M—— said she thought a girl of Jane's maturity and intelligence should have more insight than the average student into the values of a high school education. This comment seemed to release much pent-up feeling. Jane told about her belief that she was "dumb," her desire to get ahead, her feeling of inferiority because she was older than the others, her wish to graduate from high school. After listening with genuine interest Miss M——asked Jane whether she would want to tackle an accelerated program and graduate in one and a half years. Jane was thrilled at the suggestion and Miss M—— obtained the vice-principal's permission for an accelerated program on the condition that Jane would demonstrate her ability to apply herself to school work for the remainder of the term. She and Jane talked over the responsibility of undertaking an accelerated program; the final decision was left to her.

Jane was challenged by the opportunity and determined to justify Miss M——'s confidence in her. She applied herself conscientiously to her work and finished the term with but one absence. According to the agreement, she entered the accelerated program the next term. Miss M—— kept in touch with Jane and was confident that she would complete the program successfully.

This teacher attacked the problems of absence from both the preventive and remedial sides, by group work methods and by counseling. By studying the records as a background for skillful interviews she tried to discover vital interests on which to build a more successful school experience.

Disturbing the group by making silly remarks, interrupting, talking while someone else has the floor, and similar familiar behavior may also be primarily a curriculum problem. If a child fails to respond to suitable subject matter and instruction, it is time to study him individually. Unless the motives underlying his conduct are known, the teacher is likely to do the wrong thing.

"Showing off" is another way in which students express their needs. Sometimes this kind of behavior is associated

with reading difficulty which should be diagnosed and corrected. Too frequently teachers take the attitude, "He could do better if he tried." Actually, the student cannot do better until he is helped to understand his difficulty and given remedial work.

Rudeness, too, requires understanding. If the teacher recognizes rudeness as a symptom of maladjustment, he will not become angry about it. He will make sure his requests are reasonable and not be afraid to admit he is wrong. Home relations are likely to be involved; the attitude toward the teacher may really be a reflection of antagonism to a parent. The morale of the school enters in, too. In some schools rudeness is socially taboo.

Temper tantrums becomes less frequent as the child becomes more mature. In general it is best to ignore the outburst, if possible, and see that it does not gain the objective for which he staged it. While angry, the individual is usually not accessible to counseling. When he is calm again, he may be glad to consider how he can overcome this personality "fault line." If the teacher realizes that the child himself is often anxious and frightened by his uncontrolled expression of emotion, he will be more sympathetic than stern. Sometimes an emotional outburst is the only way in which an adolescent can get the things he needs for his best development.

Backward or Handicapped Students. In counseling handicapped students, the teacher-counselor needs facts about the handicap and resources for dealing with it. He should know the time at which the handicap began. If a child is born with a physical abnormality he is more likely to become adjusted to it and to have a less difficult problem of habit revision than if he acquires it later. The teacher should also know about the child's environment. If the child's parents accept the handicap and help him to accept it, they make his adjustment much easier. In a sense, every child is exceptional and should be helped to grow up in his best way. The handicapped child is no exception to this general principle. He should be given preparation for leading a life as nearly normal and complete

as his handicap will allow. If he is overprotected, if things are done for him that he can do himself, he is likely to get the idea that he is not capable or competent.

In counseling the mentally retarded child, it is important for the teacher to obtain medical and psychological information on the nature of the retardation. The physician has data that indicate whether the retardation is likely to get progressively worse; the psychologist supplies information on how the individual's mind works under certain standardized conditions. There is always the possibility of mental retardation being caused by early emotional disturbance. A few cases have been reported in which supposedly feeble-minded children began to learn when they were given the affection they needed; dullness was a defense mechanism, which they surrendered under skillful treatment. Behavior problems are often associated with mental deficiency because the demands of the environment are not adjusted to the individual's mental capacity. In a favorable institutional environment, such as that of Letchworth Village, or the public school described on pages 133-134, misconduct tends to decrease.

One of the teacher's most difficult guidance tasks is to tell a parent that his child is mentally retarded. For the most part, the parents of mentally retarded children do not want an accurate measure of their child's mental status in years and months. They really want an understanding of their own emotional needs. The main purpose of the first interview, therefore, is to help the parents to accept the child as he is. Insight is the objective. Eventually this insight should enable the parents to work out a plan that they can carry out independently.

The successful interpretive interview usually follows a sequence somewhat like this:

1. A recognition of the parent's concern about the child: "You are naturally worried about Tom's lack of progress, aren't you?" This convinces the parent that the interviewer understands his problem and is in sympathy with him.

2. A clarification of the parent's feeling about the problem: "Just what is it about Tom's development that concerns you most?" This enables the parent to bring out his minor

and major concerns, all of which are accepted by the worker as worthy of attention. Toward the end of the parent's explanation the worker may ask, "What age child do you think Tom is like now?"

3. A request from the parent for specific information about the child's mental status. The parent may first ask the general question, "What do you think his mental ability is?" To this question the worker may reply in terms of mental age, "About six years." He does not use the technical words describing mental retardation but speaks of the child as one who is "slow to learn."

4. A request for more specific information on what the child will be able to do. The worker may then go over with the parents some of the things they know the child can do and some of the tasks on the tests given him that he could and could not do. He emphasizes the things the child can do but usually does not try to predict the child's future development. With parents who are seeking the truth, he answers directly and accurately.

5. Discussion of what should be done. This follows directly from the consideration of what the child can do and can learn. The parent should be encouraged to express his opinion and describe any plans he has in mind. If the plans are sound, the worker can assist in carrying them out.

6. Encouraging the parent to express his feeling of responsibility for the child's retardation—usually a feeling that is based on misconceptions. If this is so, the parent's feeling of guilt may be relieved if he knows that no causal relation exists between his "sins" and the child's condition.

7. Relieving the parent's feeling that he has neglected the child, and his fear of loss of prestige if the child is committed to a state institution.

Sometimes parents who appear to have accepted the plan of treatment later relapse into their old pattern of hope that the child can be "cured." This does not mean that the worker has failed, but rather that the parent's need to have a normal child is very deep-seated.¹⁰

¹⁰ Harriet L. Rheingold, "Interpreting Mental Retardation to Parents," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 9:142-148, May-June, 1945.

The counselor can also help the handicapped adolescent plan his future so as to make the most of his assets. This was done in the case of Frank who, at the age of twelve, lost his leg in a bicycle accident. He had previously been active in sports. After his recovery he was fitted with an artificial leg and encouraged to become as physically active as possible. He had always wanted to play football and become a coach. Now that this career was impossible, he became interested in golf and motorboats. At eighteen, he reached the sophomore year in college and became an amateur golf champion. He is well adjusted, happy, and interested in activities in which he can excel and in those he can enjoy as a spectator.

The case of John is in marked contrast to that of Frank. John, the son of intelligent parents who were emotionally unstable, was stricken at the age of sixteen with acute anterior poliomyelitis that resulted in paralysis of his entire right leg. Prior to his illness, he had not been particularly active physically. He spent much of his time alone. He was an avid reader. His parents had constantly criticized him for his introverted tendencies, but he had always found some excuse for remaining indoors and following his own inclinations. This excuse would take the form sometimes of an imaginary illness, sometimes of a temper tantrum. His acute illness and subsequent hospitalization increased his parents' concern and provided him with a method of escape. He no longer had to make believe or conjure up excuses for remaining physically inactive. He was an invalid and had no desire to be otherwise and made no plans for the future. His mental state was one of contentment; he knew that as long as his parents were alive they would take care of him and, after they were gone, he expected society to provide for him.

These cases illustrate the importance of parental attitudes and of previous personality trends in working with handicapped students. The teacher-counselor should be aware of these influences and build on the favorable trends. For persons of limited potentialities long-range planning is essential.

Particularly difficult to place in a suitable environment are adolescents of border-line intelligence who are emotionally immature. They are not psychotic enough for a mental

hospital and have too high an IQ for admission to a state school for the feeble-minded. In some instances they may be taken care of in a community project handled by a state school. Under supervision of this kind they may be prevented from getting into serious trouble because they are so impulsive, excitable, and emotionally and intellectually naïve. These serious cases of mental and emotional retardation require more continuous and expert service than the teacher-counselor can give.

Gifted Students. It is a challenge and a joy to counsel gifted students. They are capable of taking responsibility for their own guidance and for thinking through their personal perplexities. That a gifted child should be a behavior problem is a serious reflection on the home and the school. Some of the conditions that cause maladjustment in children of high intelligence are illustrated by the following case:

When Clarence was in the seventh grade, his teacher said, "That boy has killed the morale of my class this year. No one can do anything with him." On the Kuhlmann-Anderson tests his IQ was 157, which was practically the same as an individual Binet IQ obtained in a lower grade. His classmates as well as his teacher were hostile and antagonistic to him. He seemed to be completely unacceptable in his class. This rejection by the class seemed to arise from a number of factors—his excessive overweight, poor muscular coordination, lack of skill in sports—all deficiencies that tend to contribute to unpopularity in boys of his age. Although he was mentally superior, he liked to associate with younger children and frequently fought with boys of his own age. A condition at home that had contributed to his present behavior was his mother's attitude, first of rejection and later of overprotection. He spent all his time with her; she participated in all his activities, made all his plans and decisions for him, and concentrated on the development of his mental ability to the neglect of his other needs. She was emotionally unstable and dominated the father, who packed up and walked out when his wife made home too uncomfortable to him. The father had a friendly relation with his son but felt there

was nothing he could do about family conditions. This was clearly a problem which the teacher-counselor could not handle alone. Medical care and a change in home conditions were obviously needed. The teacher could perhaps help Clarence work out better relations with his classmates and could provide suitable books and other materials for independent work through which he could make a social contribution. The teacher might also look for an appropriate boarding school and help mother and son see the advantages of it.

Gifted students like Clarence may be permitted to obtain extra credit for art, manual and commercial subjects, and "research" projects. They may be allowed to take a fifth academic subject. Their program may be enriched through "library permits," which enable them to do reading of their own choosing in school time. The student activity program likewise offers opportunity for better all-round development of these children.

In counseling gifted students the teacher should distinguish between the genuinely gifted and those who make a high score on intelligence tests through a kind of mental forced feeding. The naturally bright child of between 135 and 150 IQ is likely to be physically, socially, and emotionally superior. The child who has been overstimulated mentally is likely to be physically and socially below par and unpleasantly precocious.

On the very high levels—above 170—adjustment is difficult because of the wide gap between their thinking and that of their associates. It is hard for them to be patient and tolerant of stupidity. Because they do not find the activities of their age group satisfying, they tend to withdraw into reading and other solitary pursuits. The teacher-counselor can help these children see that success in almost every vocation depends, to a great extent, on ability to understand all sorts of people and that many of the satisfactions of life come from success in human relations.

Another important phase of counseling all superior children is that of building a sense of responsibility for their gifts. "They are not their own." Their advantages carry

with them obligations. If students of superior ability really believed this, there would be less discrepancy between ability and academic achievement than is found at present.

Educational Opportunities. Educational guidance is an intrinsic part of developmental guidance. It is counseling leading to self-discovery with special emphasis on self-realization through appropriate education. The first part of the process—discovery of one's potentialities—has been described on pages 249 to 281. The second part—collecting and classifying up-to-date, accurate information about educational opportunities—will be briefly described here.¹¹ The third part—fitting the educational opportunities to the individual—is the counseling process, which has already been described.

The teacher-counselor is dependent upon cumulative personnel records for an understanding of the individual's interests, achievement, and personality trends. Achievement in high school, to mention only the item most commonly found on record cards, is one of the best indications of college success. Follow-up studies have shown the following kind of relationship between high school marks and graduation from junior college:¹²

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN GIVEN QUARTER OF HIGH SCHOOL
MARKS WHO GRADUATED FROM COLLEGE

Highest quarter	62%
Second quarter	21
Third quarter	9
Lowest quarter	2

The teacher-counselor is dependent upon standardized and informal tests for verification of his general impressions. After studying these sources of information, he is ready to use the interview to see how the student is looking at himself and to help him to arrive at an accurate and realistic appraisal of his potentialities. Then they both are ready to study educational opportunities in the light of the student's learning ability and vocational plans.

¹¹ For a more detailed treatment, see Ruth Strang, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, Chap. III. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1946.

¹² Kopple C. Friedman and P. B. Jacobson, "A Statistical Basis for Educational Guidance," *School Review*, 45:358-363, May, 1937.

High school students scatter to many different kinds of higher institutions. In one high school in a well-to-do community, the 633 graduates who entered college were distributed among 143 higher institutions that varied widely in their requirements. Many of these students changed their minds several times during high school years.

Each teacher-counselor cannot be expected to collect and classify the vast amount of information about colleges, preparatory schools, business training schools, and schools or apprenticeship opportunities preparing for different vocations. The director of guidance, full-time educational and vocational counselor, dean of girls or dean of boys, librarian, or a committee should be responsible for building up a convenient, current, and complete file of information accessible to teacher-counselors and students. This information should be kept in the central guidance office where teacher-counselors have privacy to interview students and parents. A duplicate file might well be kept in an alcove of the library.

This file of information about a wide range of educational opportunities should include the following source material:

1. Books on the process of choosing further education, such as:
ALSOP, Gulielma F. and McBRIDE, Mary F. *She's Off to College; A Girl's Guide to College Life*. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1940. 275 pp.
HAMRICK, Randall B. *How to Make Good in College*. Association Press, New York, 1940. 274 pp.
LOVEJOY, Clarence E. *So You're Going to College*. Simon and Schuster, New York, 1940. 383 pp.
McCONN, Charles M. *Planning for College and How to Make the Most of It While There*. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1937. 267 pp.
STRANG, Ruth. *Investing in Yourself*. Consumer Education Services, Unit No. 4. National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., 1945. 90 pp.
2. Books giving a brief description of a large number of junior colleges, colleges, and universities, such as:
DAVIS, Wayne. *How to Choose a Junior College*. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1939. 249 pp.
GOOD, Carter V. (editor). *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1945. 663 pp.
MARSH, Clarence S. (editor). *American Universities and Colleges*

(Fourth Edition). American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1940. 1120 pp.

PATTERSON, Homer L. (editor). *Patterson's American Educational Directory*. American Educational Company, Chicago, 1939. 1052 pp.

SARGENT, Porter. *A Handbook of Private Schools for American Boys and Girls, An Annual Survey*, Vol. 28. Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon Street, Boston, 1944. 1024 pp.

3. Directories listing different kinds of educational opportunities, such as:

MILLER, Adeline E. and CANON, Genevieve Orr. *Pennsylvania Schools*. New Castle Printing Company, New Castle, Pennsylvania, 1945. (This is one of a series for different states.)

VOCATIONAL SERVICE FOR JUNIORS (compiler). *Directory of Opportunities for Vocational Training in New York City*. Vocational Advisory Service, 95 Madison Avenue, New York, January, 1940.

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Educational Directory, 1940*. Bulletin 1940. No. 1. Part III, Colleges and Universities, including all institutions of higher education. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 86 pp.

4. Books supplying information about admission requirements, scholarships, financial aid, and other special phases of the subject:

GREENLEAF, Walter J. *Working Your Way Through College and Other Means of Providing for College Expenses*. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 210; Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 4. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1941.

HINKLEY, William W. *Handbook of College Entrance Requirements*. Bulletin 1941, No. 13. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1941.

NEILSON, William Allan. *Annual Handbook 1945 Terms of Admission to the Colleges of the College Entrance Examination Board*. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1945. 203 pp.

5. Local sources of information—chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and business men's associations.

Each folder in a file containing information about separate educational institutions that students are likely to attend should include: Latest catalogue, supplementary booklets describing the college or other institution, articles from newspapers and magazines about it, excerpts from letters or interviews from former graduates who are attending, reports of visits.

Charts and summary sheets should be prepared to answer questions that constantly arise in educational counseling, such as the following:

What schools, or colleges, or training centers offer the best preparation along certain lines: art, home economics, engineering, etc.?

What schools can I attend within an annual cost range?

What scholarship and fellowship are available?

How well do former graduates of this school succeed in different higher educational institutions?

What institutions offer a good type of social life for rather shy students who need the experience of working and playing with members of both sexes?

What institutions offer valuable educational experiences for students whose mental ability is average or below the average of the general population of college freshmen? (Valuable information on this question may be obtained from the report of the intellectual level of students in individual colleges: "The 1934 Psychological Examination," *Educational Record*, 16:226-234, April, 1935.)

With the suggested sources of information at hand, the student can find the facts he needs in order to make a sound long-term educational plan.

Although the study of learning ability and choice of educational opportunities appropriate to it goes on continuously, there are certain times when special consideration should be given to educational plans. At the end of the sixth grade, under the six-three-three plan, pupils reach the end of the elementary school unit. At this point many rural pupils leave school; others have to make a choice between junior high schools and other educational opportunities. At the end of the ninth grade a still wider choice of high schools and vocational training is offered. No sooner have pupils entered high school than they have to begin making plans for the years beyond high school. These plans should include a consideration of what they are going to get out of further education as well as of how they are going to get into the school or training center of their choice. After two years of general education in college, specialization leading to certain vocations is of major concern.

At each of these points the teacher-counselor should take time to consider with the students individually and in groups their abilities and interests, their past achievements and satis-

factions, their present program and circumstances, and their future goals and educational and vocational plans. The counselor in the higher school, who has had no previous contact with the student, is usually given little cumulative personnel data about him and sees him only for a short registration period. The teacher-counselor in the lower school is usually the best person to help the student make a tentative program for the higher institution. For example, the eighth grade teacher in the elementary school, after helping the pupils to analyze their interests and abilities and discussing with them the vocational and avocational implications of high school subjects offered by schools in the vicinity, encourages them to make out a tentative enrollment blank. The teacher checks each pupil's plan, keeping in mind his chances of success in the chosen subjects, his vocational interests, the course requirements, and whether there are conflicts in time.

During later years students tend to go for educational guidance to the member of the faculty whom they know best. The following is a short interview with a high school junior who has, up to this time, taken it for granted that he would go to college but is now becoming anxious about his ability to enter and succeed in college. He stops in the counselor's office to talk about it:

COUNSELOR: Making a decision to go to college is mighty important. You are deciding to invest four years of your life and from \$1,000 to \$5,000. You're right in considering whether you'll be admitted and whether you're likely to succeed.

BILL: I know it costs money to go to college and lots of people drop out before they graduate. But people who amount to anything go to college. And Mom is determined that I go to college. Dad did. But I don't know whether I've got what it takes to go to college. No matter what my test scores are, Mom would still want me to go to college, so that's what I'll probably do anyway.

C.: You feel you've got to go to college somehow.

B.: Yes, but my high school marks are low. I didn't take time to study, and the teachers think they're talking to college students and not to average high school kids. If they'd teach more and test less, I'd be able to learn, maybe.

C.: You think you'd learn better if you had better teachers.

B.: Yes, but college teachers might be worse, mightn't they?

C.: They might expect the students to learn more independently.

B.: That's it. So I ought to find out whether I can learn even if the teacher doesn't explain things well.

C.: You want to sort of experiment now, to see whether you can learn if you put your mind on it?

B.: Yes. That's something I ought to find out. And how I stand in the kind of tests that colleges give to students who want to enter.

C.: That could be arranged. Your class is going to take one of those examinations in a few weeks. Stop and let me know how you get along in classes when you really put your mind on the work. If you discover you need help in reading and study methods, go to see Miss M——. She's especially good along that line.

At a later date, when all the evidence collected pointed toward non-academic ability and interests, the counselor encouraged the boy to think about a number of factors: the kinds of jobs he might obtain after graduation from high school, the mother's inability to finance a college education for him, and the opportunities to learn while earning. The father was dead and a friend of the family had offered the boy a job in which he would have a chance to develop his knack of getting along with people. All these and other related factors he considered in making his decision.

When a high school student, so far as the counselor can judge, does not seem likely to succeed in college, the many educational opportunities appropriate to a wide range of ability should be opened up to him. By considering other kinds of schools beside the one on which he or his parents had set their hearts, the counselor may lessen the disappointment over not going to college. Part of the difficulty in this kind of counseling situation lies in the emphasis the American culture puts on a certain kind of "success" and in the failure to realize the value of heterogeneity in a democracy. If the individual had earlier been helped to appraise himself, accept his limitations, and make long-term educational plans, these difficult counseling situations need seldom occur during adolescence.

Reading and Study Difficulties. The general pattern of counseling already described is appropriate here also. First, the counselor should be sensitive to how the student is thinking and feeling and encourage him to talk about his reading and study, thus clarifying the situation for himself and the counselor. Second, the counselor may help the student to analyze his reading and study methods more expertly than he could do alone. Third, they will plan together procedures and practice that will lead to improvement. The counselor will deal with the more complex cases, leaving much of the fundamental instruction in reading and study methods to the teacher of each subject.

The following procedure, modified to meet the needs and expectations of individual students, may serve as a helpful guide to teacher-counselors in interviews of this kind:

A. *Before the first interview:*

1. Check on health and physical condition. Examine the student's health record, noting nutritional condition, recent illness, visual and auditory efficiency, and physician's recommendations. Find out whether recommendations have been carried out and remediable defects corrected. Refer student for further examinations if necessary.

2. Study the student's cumulative personnel record. If there is a good record system, this study will yield valuable information: trends in marks in different subjects; results of standardized intelligence, achievement, and reading tests; part-time work experience, hobbies, and interests; educational and vocational plans; goals and purposes, participation in extraclass activities; family background; and more or less information on personality trends. The teacher-counselor may unify all the available information that may have a bearing on the student's reading and study difficulty on the *Examiner's Reading Diagnostic Record*.¹³ Thus he may obtain an appreciation of the student's learning ability and of factors that are influencing his reading and study efficiency.

3. If possible, talk with student's teachers informally or

¹³ Ruth Strang and Others, *Examiner's Reading Diagnostic Record*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1939.

in a case conference to obtain their impression of his performance in their subject, his relationship with classmates, and special difficulties and abilities they have noted. This may be done before or after the interview.

B. In the first interview:

1. Start where the student is, accept him as a person who has many good qualities and, like everyone else, has certain difficulties. The approach in every case will be different. If the student is emotionally disturbed by his reading difficulty, the teacher-counselor may gain rapport by giving a test of visual efficiency such as the Betts' test. This test is also useful to indicate whether or not the student should be referred to an oculist for a more thorough examination. Another approach is to provide a number of books and articles of different levels of reading difficulty and ask the student to browse through them and select the ones he would like to read. When he reads a paragraph or two from the books he has selected, the teacher-counselor can obtain an approximate idea of his level of reading ability.

The student himself usually gives some clues to the phase of the problem that will be most profitable to explore first. He may mention lack of interest or purpose, inability to budget time, slow reading, inability to concentrate, or other conditions that he feels are interfering with his reading and study efficiency. For example, if he has difficulty in budgeting his time, he may be helped by making a schedule of the week divided into convenient blocks of time. First he fills in all his prescribed periods. Then, after keeping a running account of his activities for several days, he may, in conference with the counselor, fill in the rest of his schedule with work and recreation, leaving some unscheduled time for relaxation.

C. Information obtained in the interviews:

Out of the interviews usually grows a need for more understanding of the student's reading and study processes. This may be obtained in various ways:

1. An oral reading test is most revealing. For elementary school children and retarded high school pupils the Gray

Oral Reading Test¹⁴ is excellent. For older students the four paragraphs in the Examiner's Reading Diagnostic Record may be used. Paragraphs from the student's texts or reference books can be used in the same way. The student is asked to read each paragraph aloud and then to tell what the author says or to answer appropriate questions. From this performance the teacher-counselor may learn much about the student's reading:

- a. The level of difficulty on which he can read fluently.
- b. The mechanical errors he makes: reversal of letters or syllables, repetitions, omissions, mispronunciations, substitutions of letters or words.
- c. The way in which he attacks unfamiliar words.
- d. The way his mind works in grasping ideas while reading: some students will fail to get the main idea and remember only trivial details; others will give a complete, logical pattern of thought in their own words.¹⁵
- e. His attitude toward reading. His facial expression and other expressive movements as well as his incidental comments such as "I hate to read," "That was very bad, wasn't it?" give important clues as to the student's attitude toward reading.

2. Silent reading tests, either standardized or informal tests using passages from parts of the text or reference books the students have not yet read, may be used. Much diagnostic information may be extracted from these tests:

- a. The total score with its grade or percentile equivalent, shows his reading ability in reference to his age or grade group.
- b. The scores on the subtests show differences in reading skills. (It must be remembered, however, that a short subtest has low reliability.)
- c. The errors made on the silent reading test indicate difficulties to be corrected. For example, one student may repeatedly make errors in words that resemble another

¹⁴ Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

¹⁵ For examples of the marked individual differences in response after reading three test passages, see Ruth Strang, *Exploration in Reading Patterns*, pp. 6-72. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1942.

word in form—as “conflagration” confused with “congregation.” Or, on the paragraph reading tests, he may miss most of the questions involving generalizations or inference.

d. Introspective reports made soon after taking the test give insight into the reading process itself.

3. An analysis may be made of the student's methods of studying an assignment. The counselor may profitably spend a period in sitting with the student while he studies an assignment in his usual way. The counselor will note whether the student, before he begins to read, thinks about the purpose for which he is reading, the relation of the passage to his previous knowledge, and questions he expects to have answered by the assignment. The counselor will also note whether the student skims over the entire passage to get a sense of the author's mood and intent and the general structure and how he reads each paragraph, takes notes, gets significant ideas, and relates them to one another. This kind of period is valuable, for in it the teacher-counselor can reinforce good methods and work out better ones with the student during the process.

4. Use of study habit inventories¹⁶ serves to call the student's attention to generally effective study methods. The student rates himself and tries to improve in the study habits in which he is weak.

D. *Diagnosis based on study of the individual:*

From all the record data and from the further understanding gained from observation and interviews the teacher-counselor sees reading and study more clearly as part of the total life of the student, as one expression of the individual's personality. How he reads, how much he reads, what he reads, and what he gets out of his reading depend not only on his native ability and past achievement but also upon the availability of reading material, the encouragement he has had to read, the attitude of his family and peers toward read-

¹⁶ A widely used inventory is one by C. Gilbert Wrenn: *Study Habit Inventory* (Revised Edition). Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1941.

ing, his social adjustment in the home and in school, his emotional relation with his parents, and other factors. For example, a boy whose mother had deserted the home, whose admired father is of the bookish type, and who has been unsuccessful in making friends at school retreated into books. His proficiency and interest in reading were exceedingly high. No teacher-counselor can work successfully with study and reading problems who does not understand the individual student's values, fears, feelings that he is not accepted, motives, interests, and personality trends.

E. Remedial work:

Remedial and developmental work should grow out of the diagnostic process. One of the most important phases of remedial work is changing the student's attitude toward himself. Poor readers often acquire a reputation for failure and begin to think of themselves as "failures." Often the family intensify this feeling. This hopelessness with respect to themselves may be prevented or corrected in a number of indirect ways. For example, in one case in which the reading difficulty seemed to have its roots in a deep-seated fear arising from early experiences, self-confidence was gradually built through experiences such as the following:

1. The mother went to the school to thank the principal for the help he had given the child in reading, thus reinforcing the school's friendly feeling toward the child.
2. The mother said in front of the child, "Her father said he had noticed improvement in her reading. She read the newspaper, too, coming here on the train." This child had the ability to read but was not using it. With help, her latent ability was released into functioning ability.

Another child who had trouble in reading was helped to develop his unusual ability in art. Soon the class looked to him for leadership in art work. As recognition of his ability in this field increased, his inhibitions with respect to reading decreased. His reasoning seemed to be, "Anyone who is as good as I am in art shouldn't be afraid of a book." Merely requiring more and more time for study intensifies the problem and often deprives the student of essential social expe-

riences. In the interview the teacher-counselor has the opportunity to help the individual achieve a more hopeful idea of himself and to realize that because he does not succeed in algebra or Latin, he is not a failure as a person.

The best way to build self-esteem in the child is not merely to talk about how good he is but to put him in situations in which he can discover for himself that he can succeed along certain lines. This can be done by providing work suited to his capacity and giving him as much individual help as he needs. For example, a teacher privately asked an overage girl in the eighth grade to find the answers to a question in history, and gave her a very simple, interesting book on the subject. Her parents cooperated by asking her to explain the subject to them. The next day the teacher called on the girl casually to answer the question, which she did unusually well. After repeated experiences of this kind the class, who were beginning to label the girl as "dumb," changed their attitude toward her and thus helped to change her attitude toward herself. In the interview the teacher-counselor had discovered the girl's need for recognition from her peers. She had said bitterly to the counselor, "You don't know how it feels to have the kids all think you're dumb." By gaining the cooperation of the teachers, the counselor was able to create situations in which this attitude was changed.

In working with a student who has the idea of himself as a boy or girl who cannot learn to read, it is very important for the teacher-counselor, at the very beginning, to select interesting reading material slightly below his present level of difficulty and to build up a background of experience for reading it, even sometimes including the study of difficult words. Then the student will see for himself that he can read a passage with ease and fluency. The teacher-counselor who uses this approach is far more likely to succeed than if he concentrated on the student's faults and failings.

Helping the student to correct the errors detected in the diagnosis is also a necessary part of the process of building up self-esteem and self-confidence. For example, if a child has the habit of reversing letters in certain words—*saw* for *was*, for example—he can be given drills that will require

him to distinguish between the two forms, as, for example, sentences like this:

set
The boy was the dog.
saw

If he has difficulty in getting the main idea of paragraphs, he may be given practice in reading paragraphs. One series may consist of paragraphs constructed with the topic sentence clearly stated and followed by illustrations and supporting details. Another series may have the main idea as a summary sentence at the end of the paragraph. Still another series may contain two contrasting ideas with the "signal" words, *but, however, on the other hand*, somewhere in the middle. Still other paragraphs may require the reader to discover the main idea, which is not specifically stated anywhere in the paragraph. Finally a mixed series may be presented so that the student may apply his knowledge of paragraph structure to the efficient reading of these paragraphs. Comprehension may be tested first by presenting multiple-choice responses representing the best statement of the main idea, a good but somewhat inadequate statement, a correct but inadequate statement, a definitely inadequate statement, and an erroneous statement. For example, this paragraph may be tested as follows:

Fear, like anger, stops the flow of the digestive juices. In India a test was once used to tell whether or not a prisoner was guilty of a crime. The man was given an handful of dry rice to put in his mouth. He was told to keep the rice in his mouth a few minutes. If the prisoner had committed a crime and was very much frightened, his saliva would stop flowing and the rice would remain dry. If he was not guilty and had no fear of being punished, his saliva would flow as usual and the rice would be wet.¹⁷

The best statement of the main idea of this paragraph is

- a test of guilt in India
- fear stops the flow of the digestive juices
- if a person is afraid, his saliva will not flow
- the effect of fear
- if a person is guilty, the rice will be wet.

¹⁷ Adapted from W. W. Charters, Dean F. Smiley, and Ruth M. Strang, *Health Problems*, pp. 22-23. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1936.

After doing a few exercises of this kind and discussing why one response is better than the others, the student may be asked to state the main idea in his own words. Then the skill in paragraph reading may be applied to longer passages and the relation between the main ideas caught as he reads.

Similarly, other difficulties discovered in the diagnosis may be corrected through practice, as the student recognizes the need for it. Scores should be kept from day to day so that the student will have objective evidence of his progress. It is true that "practice makes perfect"—if it is practice accompanied by instruction and a knowledge of results. It is also true that "nothing succeeds like success." Therefore the teacher-counselor should try to maintain an optimistic atmosphere throughout the study and reading interviews.

For many high school and college students day-by-day effort is generated by the thought of their vocational plans. Those who have not developed an appreciation of the relationship between school work and their clearly defined goals are not likely to put forth optimum effort. To stimulate such an appreciation is a valuable kind of counseling service.

A disparity between scholastic aptitude as indicated by intelligence tests and school marks may arise from faults in the school rather than in the students. There may be little actual or apparent connection between the subjects they study and their real interests. Instruction may be poor, the subject load too heavy, or the marking system geared too high.

Choice of Vocation. Vocational guidance, too, while requiring specialized knowledge, should not be isolated from the individual's total adjustment to life. In fact, it cannot be so isolated. To be sure, an individual's physical and intellectual capacity to do certain kinds of work, his preparation for a vocation, and his interest in it are important in choosing a vocation. But other factors may actually determine which vocation he enters: his likes and dislikes, such as desire for an outdoor life or dislike of noise; his family's ambition, prejudices, and financial resources. Beyond the family, economic and social conditions in the neighborhood, the nation,

and the world determine what jobs are open to an individual at a particular time. Luck, too, enters in.

Vocational guidance should begin early. In the first grade of elementary school children begin to learn about the milkman, the postman, and other workers in their immediate environment. Thus they begin to form attitudes about different kinds of work. Their view of the world enlarges as they study other occupations presented in assembly programs and in their social studies classes and in visits to industries in their neighborhood. They gain basic information about their abilities and interests by engaging in arts, crafts, shopwork, sports, history, mathematics, science, and English. For those boys and girls who leave elementary school to go to work, a special guidance and placement service should be provided, as in England for children of school-leaving age. When a child is contemplating leaving school, his cumulative record should be examined, an interview scheduled during which vocational fields within the range of his ability are explored, and placement service leading to a job or preparation for a job made available. The school could be expected to prepare its students for vocational life by means of general education in reading, writing, arithmetic, science, and citizenship; by equipping them with technical skills needed in a given family of occupations; by acquainting them with working conditions and relationships; and by building an attitude of willingness to change their vocational goal if employment conditions change.

Part-time work experience may contribute a great deal to the student's development and guidance. Its values depend upon the way the program is conducted. Students, parents, teachers, and employers should understand the work experience program as a part of the student's education. Each student should be helped to get the kinds of work experiences that further his education and fit into his twenty-four hour schedule. In planning his part-time work, he should consider his academic achievement, health, social development, and home conditions. After he has been placed, the employer should cooperate with the school in supervising his work. If these conditions prevail, part-time work experience will

have the following values: a better basis for vocational choice, an understanding of different kinds of people and employer-employee relations, and an appreciation of the value of school. In many cases, it will increase independence, self-reliance, and self-esteem, and provide necessary financial aid. If the work experience is poorly selected and supervised and not geared into the school program, it is likely to be detrimental to the student's health, scholarship, and social development.

Every school and part-time work experience helps the individual to discover what he can do and what he cannot do successfully and happily. If he has had good educational guidance, he will have studied in the fields in which he can learn best and be prepared for whatever vocations open up in these fields. When he is about to leave school, he needs special help in choosing a vocation, preparing for it, and finding a suitable opening.

The more a teacher-counselor knows about his counselees, the better vocational guidance he can give. For vocational guidance purposes, he would usually seek more information about the student's ability to learn; his interests and relative satisfaction in working with ideas, with things, and with people; and his resources for preparing for the kinds of work in which he is interested.

Equally important is knowledge of the personal qualifications for different positions, the exact nature of the work, the pay and opportunity for advancement, the preparation needed, trends in job opportunities, and the social values in the work. Some of this knowledge may be acquired through books and pamphlets, which should be kept in a file of folders. These folders should include the most recent pamphlets on the occupation, such as those published by the Institute for Research, 537 South Dearborn Street, Chicago; Occupational Index, Inc., Washington Square, New York; Science Research Associates, Chicago; and other pamphlets given in a bibliography compiled by Gertrude Forester and published by H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1946. (For examples of books and pamphlets, see Appendix B.)

Still more intimate understanding of different jobs is ob-

tained through talking with workers, visiting business establishments and industries, and getting firsthand work experience in one or more lines. This is the task of the placement officer and vocational guidance expert, who should collect this information and present it in reliable form.

In other cases it is possible to help an individual to understanding of the individual and the world of work. The individual looks at himself as objectively as possible, appraising his present assets and recognizing his limitations. He weighs all the other factors influencing his choice, and makes his own decision. If further general education or special training is needed, he learns where he can obtain the preparation for the occupations in which he is interested: professions, clerical jobs, trades, or semi-skilled jobs.

There are a number of ways of dealing with a pupil who had made inappropriate vocational plans. It is sometimes possible for him to satisfy his major interest through an avocation, the while he supports himself by means of another type of work. This plan was followed by a boy who wanted to become an orchestra leader. He was forced to obtain factory work but managed to improve his proficiency in music by playing the drums in an orchestra on certain evenings.

Another type of adjustment is that in which a basic desire is satisfied through an occupation other than the one first chosen. This adjustment was made by a girl who wanted to model, chiefly because she had always desired beautiful clothes. In appearance, however, she was quite unsuited to the vocation she had selected. Eventually she obtained an excellent secretarial position which enabled her to purchase attractive clothes.

In other cases it is possible to help an individual to change his objectives by having him try out some of the actual steps in the process in which he is interested. For example, inability to pass certain typing tests may convince him of his inaptitude for clerical work. A few months in a camp may reveal a strong dislike for non-urban work. There is no better way of dealing with an individual who has his heart set on an unsuitable vocation than by setting the stage

so that he will gradually arrive at the point of view that will cause him to change his impractical plans.

Many interviews begin on the vocational counseling plane and move gradually and naturally into consideration of many other aspects of the individual's life. This was true of Miss Y——, who came ostensibly to the college counselor to obtain information about kinds of secretarial work. In order better to understand the factors influencing her vocational choice and her proficiency and satisfaction in different kinds of work, two tests of mental ability (the Otis Quick-Scoring Test of Mental Ability and the Bellevue-Wechsler Intelligence Test), a test of clerical ability (the Minnesota Test of Clerical Ability), a test of interests (Kuder Preference Record), an autobiography, and interviews were employed. Thus the counselor obtained a better understanding of her scholastic aptitude and special clerical ability, her lack of a persistent pattern of vocational and avocational interests over a period of years, her financial status, her feelings of inadequacy and emotional insecurity.

In the course of the initial interviews and testing periods it appeared that here was a young woman who withdrew from intimate association with people and was afraid to be spontaneous and outgoing for fear of being rejected or hurt by criticism. As she talked about the jobs she had held, this tendency showed up in her lack of strong, persistent vocational interests and her need for approval, which was lacking in her present work. On the surface, at least, she relied on intellectual rather than emotional satisfactions and was glad to have her mother assume responsibility for her.

Throughout the counseling relationship, this young woman constantly sought to hide the sensitive spots in her life under the protection of vocational guidance. She probably obtained some help in progressing in her field of work and a little insight into her personality trends. The question was: should she try to modify her personality pattern as she recognized it more clearly, and, if so, in what ways could the counselor help? At this point the college counselor recognized the need for the assistance of specialists.

The teacher-counselor makes his greatest contribution by

understanding the individual's ability to prepare for certain fields of work. He needs to be supplied with usable, current information on requirements for different vocations, openings, and trends. For the last stage in the process—placement—the teacher-counselor must depend upon a placement office in the school or community. Vocational guidance is not carried to its conclusion until the individual enters and progresses in a carefully selected job.

Superficial or unskillful placement interviews are not justified. There is danger of intensifying a person's sense of vocational failure by placing him in inappropriate jobs. It also wastes interviewers' time. A large number of replacement interviews may add up to as much time as adequate vocational guidance in the beginning. The employer also suffers. The rapid turnover of poorly placed workers is an expensive proposition for him. Understanding this, the teacher-counselor tries to prepare his students as adequately as possible for placement.

After the individual is placed, he should be followed up for two reasons. One is that he may be helped in making a good adjustment to his new job; the other is that the placement officer may continuously learn more about the requirements of different jobs and whether his placement procedure has been effective. The teacher-counselor should be part of a community coordination of agencies, which serves all the individuals in the community.

The teacher-counselor should refer disabled veterans to the Veterans' Rehabilitation Services. The Civil Service Commission's "Operations Manual for the Placement of the Physically Handicapped" has proved helpful in the placement of disabled veterans. In placing a handicapped worker, the counselor should consider his ability to do the work safely and efficiently. He should be thought of as an "efficient worker," not as a "problem" requiring special consideration. If handicapped veterans are placed in jobs for which they are ill fitted, they will become increasingly inefficient and discouraged. When production begins to slow down, they will be among the workers who are discharged. Therefore it is necessary to study the physical requirements of each

job, such as visual efficiency, facility in speech, manipulative skills, and limitations imposed by illness, in relation to other conditions, such as lighting, noise, ventilation, and social satisfactions. With adequate knowledge of the individual's assets and limitations and of the requirements and conditions of work, the placement officer can help each applicant to evaluate his fitness for the job. The applicant whose physical impairments bear no relation to the requirements of the job is selected. Frequently a handicap can be turned into an asset, as, for example, deafness in the case of a person working in the midst of noisy machinery.

Good vocational adjustment should result if the process outlined is carried out skillfully. However, the best efforts of the counselor may be blocked by economic and political conditions. To get results it is necessary to break down prejudices, to build right attitudes toward all socially useful work, and to effect social and economic changes that will open new and numerous avenues of employment.

✧ Conclusion ✧

In their counseling role, teachers cover a wide range of contacts, from short, casual conversations to a long series of interviews. These face-to-face contacts grow out of classroom guidance. By showing consideration, recognition of good qualities, and interest, the teacher-counselor gradually builds a good relationship with students out of which a readiness for counseling arises. Instead of having to gain rapport in an interview, as the counselor isolated in a personal office does, the teacher-counselor continues the good relationship he has established in classroom, laboratory, shop, or playground. Thus, ideally, group work and counseling, on this level, are fused into one effective process.

Although no prescription can be given for dealing with different kinds of problems, background for understanding common difficulties can be presented. This has been done briefly in this chapter. While using generally recommended counseling procedures, the teacher should also be able to draw on special knowledge about emotional and social de-

velopment, physical conditions, intellectual needs of children with diverse mental capacity, behavior problems, and educational and vocational guidance. Effective counseling in all these phases of individual development grows out of knowledge, not out of ignorance. "Knowledge" includes not only understanding of psychological roots of behavior, but also skill in the personnel technics to be described in the next part of the book.

Part II

QUESTIONS AND REFERENCES

✓ Questions and Problems ✓

1. Describe the problems or need for guidance that you remember having had when you were in high school and college.
2. What differences have investigators found between the behavior that teachers consider serious and that which psychiatrists consider serious?
3. Discuss cases in which extremes of a certain type of behavior constitute problems. For example, behavior toward the opposite sex becomes a problem when the girl is either "boy crazy" or exclusively devoted to members of her own sex.
4. Problems are often thought of as behavior that is annoying to teachers or parents. Give examples that are not of this type: for example, the gifted pupil who is getting B's or A's in his subjects but is not working up to his capacity.
5. How may early evidence of maladjustment be detected before it becomes serious?
6. If a teacher-counselor has two periods a day free for guidance, what is the best use he could make of this time?
7. Is "having a problem" the same as "being a problem case"? Discuss.
8. Tell of cases in which early childhood experiences seem to be influencing adolescent behavior.
9. State and illustrate with real cases principles of educational and vocational guidance, social guidance, and health guidance.
10. What problems of adolescents may arise from present economic and social conditions? From the present educational system?
11. What physical and social conditions for effective living can teachers provide?
12. What can the school do to neutralize detrimental home influences for children and adolescents? What can a teacher do to help a boy or girl whose home life offers no incentive to make the most of himself, no affection, no supervision?

13. What procedures may be used in counseling students whose achievement is far below their ability? What can a teacher do with those who dislike school but are compelled by law to attend?
14. How would you judge whether a case was too serious for you to attempt to handle?
15. How can you help a student gain an understanding of himself and his relationship with his family and to society?
16. How can a teacher help children from broken homes to make a good adjustment to life?
17. Contrast the methods of handling discipline cases as administrative problems and as guidance problems.
18. Visit a homeroom, classroom, or club. What are the individuals learning? In what ways may the experiences they are having be making changes in their ways of thinking, feeling, and acting?
19. Why should a homeroom or club program be developed cooperatively by students and teachers?
20. What is the relationship between counseling and group work?
21. As a teacher, what help would you like to have in improving your counseling and group work?
22. Think of the committees and informal groups of which you have been a member. What has given you satisfaction? What has caused you dissatisfaction or annoyance? In other words, what have been the good features and the poor features of the group experiences you have had?

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III

Technics of Personnel Work

There was a boy that all agreed
Had shut within him the rare seed
Of learning. We could understand,
But none of us could lift a hand.
The man Flammonde appraised the youth,
And told a few of us the truth;
And thereby, for a little gold,
A flowered future was unrolled.

EDWIN ARLINGTON ROBINSON,
"Flammonde"

INTRODUCTION TO PART III:

THE USE OF TECHNICS IN PERSONNEL WORK

Technic has been defined by Dewey as "intelligent means and methods for securing results."¹ The results to which student personnel work so largely contributes—the appraisal and development of the best potentialities of every individual—are facilitated by a number of technics. Years of teaching experience alone do not make a person competent in understanding individuals. If, however, he begins to use personnel technics intelligently and thoughtfully, he will increasingly profit by his experience.

The technics most useful to teachers for this purpose are those of observing and rating, obtaining a daily schedule or diary record, securing autobiographical material, testing, and interviewing. Although teachers cannot use the newer projective technics without special training and clinical experience, they should be acquainted with this most recent attempt to study personality. The facts and impressions gained from the use of these technics may be permanently recorded on cumulative record cards or unified in the form of case studies.

In the following chapters these technics of work with individuals will be simply and practically presented. The nature of the technic will be defined; situations in which it can be appropriately used will be suggested; approved procedures will be described; and the values and the limitations of the technic will be pointed out.

These technics of studying the individual supplement but do not supplant essential personal qualities in the personnel worker. No test, rating scale, or other instrument is a substitute for intuition, wisdom, and sympathy. Technics must

¹ John Dewey, *Individualism—Old and New*, p. 29. Minton, Balch and Company, New York, 1930.

be used wisely and with insight on the part of the person who uses them, and against a background of psychology, sociology, and experience. Their results should be interpreted in the light of all the other relevant information available.

There is no magic in technics. They do not tell a young person what vocation to enter; they do not insure good judgment in dealing with a bewildered child; they do not compensate for the teacher's lack of time and energy for working with individuals. But, wisely used, they help the teacher to observe students more intelligently, to record his observations in a more permanent, useful, and meaningful form, and to check and supplement his impressions of the abilities and interests of individual students and of the group as a whole.

Moreover, technics may influence the student's behavior. The fact that a teacher is interested enough in him to observe him, to talk with him, or to test him sometimes gives an individual the recognition that he needs. In the process, the individual should gain insight himself. He may be encouraged by the objective evidence of his assets; he may recognize his limitations more clearly; he may obtain a basis for planning ahead. A satisfying relationship with the person using the technics has therapeutic value in itself. Thus technics may reduce guesswork and improve the quality of every teacher's contacts with students.

VIII

OBSERVATION AND RATING

Observation is a basic technic. By observing students in classes and in more informal groups, teachers learn about their relationships with others, their interests, their response to failure and difficulty. By observing individuals in interviews and in testing situations, the counselor gets clues as to feelings that are never expressed in words. Observation may take these forms:

1. Unrecorded observation used in helping individual students adjust better to the immediate situation.

2. Anecdotal records: written snapshots of typical or exceptional behavior. An anecdotal record has been defined as "a report of a significant episode in the life of a student."

3. Behavior diary record or "anecdotal behavior journal": observations made systematically over a period of time and recorded in chronological sequence.

4. Observation of an individual in a particular class, club, or dormitory group. This kind of record includes many samples of his behavior in relation to other members of the group and shows how this interaction takes place in the group activity.

5. Periodic summaries of trends in development based on accumulated observations and impressions and checked by all the other personnel data accumulated.

6. Rating and rating scales, which may serve either to direct or to summarize observation.

7. Combination of rating scale and description of behavior that gives support to the rating.

✓ Some Illustrations of Teachers' Observation ✓

Anecdotal Records. The teacher occasionally makes a record of either typical or exceptional behavior to be included in the student's developmental record folder. The following are examples of anecdotal records written about high school students:

Immediately following the special assembly at which representatives of three religions spoke, Alice came into class thoroughly enthusiastic and excited. She said, "Wasn't that interesting! I think it's fine that they can talk like that for us and show us how much alike we are." This kind of response is typical of Alice.

When the teacher suggested to Bill that perhaps he could concentrate more easily if there were a few vacant seats between him and Harry, Bill replied, "But I'd only have to make that much more noise to speak to him." Typical of Bill.

Clarence, a monitor, during assembly attempted to squelch some hecklers. In the darkness someone slipped up a seat so that Clarence sat on the floor when he attempted to investigate the situation. Much joy in the vicinity. This is typical of the way other students feel about Clarence.

The following excerpt from a behavior diary record shows how several separate observations may be combined:

Jane was art editor of the school paper, but, after serving a month, she was dropped from the staff for the following reason: The stencil containing the art work was due on Wednesday afternoon. Accidentally, Jane tore the stencil after she had completed her drawing on it. Instead of making a new one immediately, she turned to something else and did not hand in the stencil until Thursday—a day too late. The failure to fulfill this obligation, which she had accepted, brought about her dismissal by the editor. Instead of becoming indignant or depressed, Jane seemed to accept the justice of the editor's verdict. She said, "I knew I ought to make a new stencil right away, but I just put it off." This objective attitude toward herself is typical of Jane.

Jane's work on the Italo-Ethiopian situation was well handled. She participated in discussion on city, state, and national govern-

ment and in discussion of terms and questions adequately. In the study of corruption and machine politics, Jane read *Boss Tweed* by Denis Lynch. When first called upon to report she was not ready. When she reported later her work was not distinguished. She depended too much upon notes.¹

That the behavior of the same student often changes markedly in different situations is shown in two observations:

Before class was called to order Daniel exhibited considerable boisterousness—talked with his friends loudly, carelessly knocked over a chair, and made himself generally conspicuous. Miss W—— called the class together and began talking to them without first securing their complete cooperation. Her comments were concerned with committees that were working out plans for an exhibit and a party. Although Daniel lowered his voice and sat down, he still continued talking with his companions, preventing those at the table from hearing the teacher. Miss W—— twice asked for cooperation in a general fashion, and then particularly asked for Daniel's cooperation. In response, he made some wise crack under his breath to others at the table, evoking a low laugh, and opened a library book.

During the second half of the double period another teacher took over the class to discuss some poems written by the group for the same unit. Daniel's whole attitude changed—even the expression on his face. He followed the discussion carefully, made one or two modest contributions, and made an obvious effort to obtain personal attention from the teacher.

Records of this kind help teachers to understand students. They describe the situation concretely, tell what the individual under observation did and how others responded to him. Many anecdotal records are actually reports of diverse responses evoked by different teachers. They suggest causes of the behavior, and indicate ways in which the individual may be helped to improve.

Behavior Diary Record, Including Observation in Groups.
If the teacher writes anecdotal records over a period of time,

¹ Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University, *Were We Guinea Pigs?*, p. 276. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1938.

he can learn much about trends in the student's behavior during the school year. The following is a record of a senior high school boy with an estimated IQ of 93 on the Otis Self-Administering Test. His father was a skilled laborer. The records were made in an English class which, at the beginning of the year, he liked least of all subjects.

October 17. When Bert was called on for a magazine sales talk, he said he didn't bring a magazine. He showed no embarrassment or apparent regret.

October 18. The class said Bert was the best salesman in the group. He did not, however, get up to advertise a magazine although he had a copy of *Life* with him. He said his eyes hurt him. When he did get up, he talked haltingly about the magazine and hastily sat down. He says he doesn't like to talk before people.

November 3. Bert was chosen chairman of a group to select the best letter to send to a patron of the school. The group worked together extremely well and seemed to be interested in writing the best possible letter. Bert wrote the letter with the help of the others in the group and was very careful in his writing.

November 13. Bert came in at the conference period to ask about his mark. He thought he should have the higher mark. The teacher talked to him about it, emphasizing improvement.

December 11. Bert volunteered to tell about a movie he had seen. He gave details of how aircraft crews are trained.

January 29. When the class was asked how the study of vocations in an English class could be justified, Bert said that in this study they will be improving their reading, listening, and other skills.

February 7. Bert remembered many details that were not mentioned by other members of the class when they discussed the movie about choosing a vocation.

February 14. Bert seemed interested in finding magazine articles about the Merchant Marines but gave up after looking in one reader's guide. When a boy who was also interested in the same subject could not find anything in the guide they consulted, Bert said, "Aw, let's join the Navy instead."

February 28. Bert gave as an example of how movies influence people the way everyone went around saying "Hokem Pokem" after seeing Abbott and Costello in *Lost in a Harem*.

March 5. Bert had listened to a radio forum on Sunday night. He had followed the discussion and reviewed the program well.

April 3. Bert was nominated as chairman of his class and was elected unanimously. Several of the pupils spoke for Bert, one saying, "He needs the experience and can do the job if we elect him." Later in the day he asked the teacher to recommend a book that would help him learn to preside over the class as chairman. This was the first evidence the teacher had noted of Bert's doing anything on his own initiative.

April 16. Bert presided over the class well and helped in leading the discussion. He called on pupils when there was a lull in the discussion. First he called the class to order, had the minutes read, asked for announcements and any business, and then announced the purpose of the day's discussion—to talk about books, movies, or radio programs.

May 3. Bert came in during the conference period to ask the teacher if she thought he was improving. She asked him what he thought. He said he believed he was and was certainly enjoying the class.

May 16. At the Parent-Teachers Association meeting Bert's mother went up to the teacher to say how glad she was that Bert had had the course in general English; he had begun "to take interest" in his English for the first time this year.

May 27. After the graduation exercises, Bert introduced the teacher to his father and relatives, who thanked her for what she had done for Bert. Bert stood by, beaming.

These anecdotal records give one a sense of Bert's growth in initiative, ability to express himself before a class, and interest in reading, listening, and speaking. The positive attitude of the class toward him and their acceptance of him as leader were important factors in helping him to make the most of his senior year in high school.

Observing Individuals in a Group. When teachers are required to give a report on the personality and conduct of each student at the end of the term, it is necessary for them to devote some time to observation of one student during each class. The following record describes one girl in relation to her group:

Tillie, as a rule, was the noisiest girl in the class. This afternoon was no exception. She entered the classroom with two friends and was talking so that everyone else could hear her. She

walked over to her desk and put her books down. Then, because the bell had not yet rung, she continued her conversation. Others gathered around to listen. The conversation was a typical one. They were discussing a gossip column in a small paper which they were going to put out. Tillie did most of the talking, which was mainly about boys. She seemed to know the most gossip, and, consequently, they decided to make her editor-in-chief.

She was clean and neat. She wore the school uniform and brown moccasins which were rather scuffed. However, it is considered stylish to wear scuffed moccasins, I have learned. Because the uniform is rather plain, she had livened it a bit by adding a large button which had a picture of Frank Sinatra on it and the words "Frank Sinatra is my ideal."

When the bell rang for class, she kept on talking until reminded to stop. While the dictation was being given, she giggled, chewed a pencil, and asked several questions. During the time allotted for transcribing the letter, she was constantly moving around and talking, even if all she wanted was an eraser. When the bell rang for the end of the period, she groaned because she hadn't finished, and started to work in a wild burst of speed. She ended the letter in a great hurry, and dashed out to her next class.

More might have been included here on the responses of other students to Tillie's behavior. Often it is possible to learn more about a particular student by observing how others act toward him than by observing him directly.

Periodic Summary of Behavior. The following records illustrate what one teacher was able to observe about each pupil in her sixth grade class. There were only eighteen in this group, ranging in age from 10 years 11 months to 13 years 9 months and in mental ability from 80 to 102 IQ as measured by several group intelligence tests. They came from an industrial section of a suburban town. The summary of observations on each child was included in the child's permanent developmental record folder.

Charles' achievement in English is good. His writing has a delightful, unique style. He is imaginative and sensitive to his environment and uses significant personal experiences in which he recognizes his true thoughts and feelings as subject matter for themes. In all his writing, his sense of humor is evident. He is

able to express his ideas with facility and originality. What he writes elicits and holds the reader's interest. In reading what others have written his comprehension and interpretation of subtle meanings are very high, though his rate for light reading is slow. His literary tastes and standards for judging literary material are well developed.

Richard has a hesitancy in his speech. I would not call it stuttering but he has a tendency to repeat what he is saying. He does not seem to be sure of himself. This insecurity seems to show itself in his reading also, for he rereads each paragraph. This makes his reading level drop far below what it should be. His mother is very nervous and at present is very much upset about her other sons who are in service. He is very capable in art work and he has a beautiful voice. He is in the glee club and we encourage him to sing for us whenever we have a chance.

William is a good worker but he tries to do too much. He is on the early morning paper route and delivers papers after school. Both his parents work and his sister has to get the supper. He is generally good natured and when he isn't I can easily trace it to the poor health habits cultivated in his home.

Edward is very restless and cannot think or react as quickly as he would like to. He has a habit of hitting himself on the head when he cannot respond. I questioned him, after he complained about a headache, one day and he told me he was in an accident when he was three years old. It was then I noticed he had a large scar on the back of his head. Examinations by doctors have shown there is no cause for alarm; however, I do not allow him to play too strenuously during our play period. His time out of school is poorly supervised. His mother remarried after Edward's father died. His stepfather is a young sailor twenty-one years of age. His mother works in a defense factory so Edward has the burden of getting his own meals except his lunch, which he eats in the school cafeteria. He is likable and accepts responsibility willingly. He is the school bell monitor.

Stephanie was very shy and quiet when she first came into the group. She was not very capable at manual work. After we were organized we started a Story Hour Club. She surprised me with her ability as a storyteller and also as a poet. Everybody likes her for her common sense and entertaining ways.

James is our only colored boy. He is well liked, courteous to the teachers, and willing to cooperate. However, he has many

difficulties to overcome—a very poor home, no father (he says he will have one after the war), and his younger brother who is a serious problem in the third grade. He is very untidy about his person and seems to have little incentive to be otherwise.

Clyde came to me recently from Ohio. He does a very inferior grade of work. As yet I haven't given him a mental test, so I can only give him individual attention to help him understand some of our work. He is not particularly well liked by the boys. I have tried to overcome some of their dislike by allowing him to tell about his life in the part of the country he came from and encouraging them to have him join their games.

Amelia is twelve years old and has an IQ of 95. Her reading level is 5.6. She is repeating the sixth grade because of her low scholastic achievement. When first informed that she was going to repeat the grade, both Amelia and her mother thought it was the best thing to do. She wanted to stay in my class rather than go into one of the other six grades. Last June when I recommended that she repeat the grade, she was attending the hospital clinic for treatment of a condition of weakness and atrophy of the muscles of the thighs and calves of both legs. This is a condition suffered by one of her sisters who is in the high school. I feared that the time lost in attending the clinic and her low scholarship would make a problem for her in trying to keep up with the seventh grade work. Her disability does not seem to bother her in adjusting herself socially or emotionally. She has a beautiful voice. Each week she goes to New York to take singing lessons. She is well liked by all of the other pupils.

During the latter part of the last semester I noticed that she was developing a careless attitude toward authority. Her mother came to see me and told me that they could not understand her attitude at home. She was very surly and complained that her parents did not care about her, that if they did they would come to school to see that she received a special promotion.

When talking to her I discovered she had met some friends who kept telling her she should have been promoted to the seventh grade. I explained that teachers and principals had their reasons for what they did and they could not be expected to discuss such matters with outsiders, that the only ones to whom such information should be given were the student and her parents.

I decided to awaken another interest in her. She cannot take

physical training, so during our period in the gymnasium I suggested that she go into the library and help the librarian with some simple tasks. The librarian was glad to get the help and since then Amelia has learned quite a bit about cataloging books. She enjoys her work.

She is a Girl scout, so during Girl Scout Week I helped her to plan a little exhibit about Girl Scouts and their work, their awards, and equipment. She placed this exhibit in the library for the other children to see and enjoy.

At present she seems much more content, for she is beginning to feel she is contributing something of her own to the school. I personally feel that she will be more able to take her place in the seventh grade next fall.

These summaries are helpful in understanding children insofar as they are based on concrete descriptions of the individual child's behavior, important to him in his task of growing up.

All teachers cannot understand all the students in their classes with the same degree of thoroughness. School conditions, as well as the interest and ability of the teacher, determine how well he can observe individual students and how much detail he can record and incorporate into the descriptive summaries. Every teacher, however, can learn through the process of observation to note the behavior that is most relevant to the child's development.

✓ Forms for Recording Teachers' Observation ✓

No special form for recording observations is necessary. The behavior as observed may be recorded on any kind of card or piece of paper or may be written in diary form in a loose-leaf notebook with a page or more for each student. However, there are advantages to having a simple form, such as the following, which was used in University High School, Oakland, California:

Directions: The observation recorded should be specific and descriptive, rather than general or philosophical. Please choose an incident or episode that you consider to be either typical of

this student or one that indicates some variation from his usual behavior or attitude.

Name of Student..... Class.....
Period..... Date

The rest of an 8½" by 11" sheet was blank, except for a place at the bottom where the teacher indicated whether the behavior was typical or exceptional. Sheets of different color are sometimes used to indicate whether the teacher considers the behavior commendable or undesirable from the standpoint of the student's best development. This form has the advantage of reminding the teachers of the importance of making specific, descriptive records and is more convenient to handle in the cumulative record folder than small pieces of paper or cards.

Another form is only half as large as the full-size sheet just described and is used on both sides. On one side are the following items:

.....
Observer	Age	Grade	Date
.....
Observer	Subject Taught by	School	
	Observer		

Objective Description:

On the other side are places to note whether the behavior is typical, its degree of significance, and other information that aids in the interpretation of the description:

Typical behavior ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ ? Significance

E	D	C	B	A
---	---	---	---	---

A being highest

Related background information

Observer's personal opinions and feelings about the observee
Interpretation of the behavior

A desirable feature of this record is its inclusion of the name of the observer; the record frequently tells more about the teacher than it does about the student. This form also has the advantage of making it clear that the actual description should be kept separate from the observer's subjective im-

pression and from the interpretation, which can only be made in the light of other information. It takes time, however, to write supplementary information on each observation sheet. What is usually done is to make a periodic study of a series of descriptive records as part of the total information collected in the developmental record folder, and then make interpretations and recommendations on the basis of this more comprehensive study. It is never justified for a teacher to make an interpretation or a recommendation on the basis of a single observation. Although certain single items may have significance for an understanding of the student, they give little or no insight into his development until they become part of successive observations and other data collected over a period of time.

If observations are recorded by all the teachers, the number accumulated becomes unwieldy. The only solution is to discard many of the records after the periodic summary has been made and when the student has progressed beyond his earlier observed behavior. Records that illustrate vividly an important present trend or describe methods of work with individuals that may help other teachers may be incorporated in the summaries. Reports that describe undesirable behavior should be available only to professionally minded persons who will use them for the good of the student.

✓ Observation within Various Situations ✓

The teacher uses observation in the classroom, in study hall, on the playground, in the cafeteria or dining halls, in clubs, in dormitories, in testing situations, and in interviews. The larger part of his observation he uses immediately; it is never recorded. Some observed behavior, however, is so significant for the development of the child or adolescent that it should be described in written form and filed in his cumulative record folder.

In the Classroom. In the classroom the teacher may observe the frequency with which the student voluntarily makes

contributions to the class discussion, the quality of his questions and comments, and his responses to being criticized, contradicted, or ignored. The teacher notes trends in cooperation, responsibility, initiative, sociability, leadership, and other desirable behavior as well as the initial stages of undesirable trends. A first grade teacher, noticing that Jimmy was beginning to get restless, took him with her around the room as she looked at the work of other children. A sixth grade teacher observed that Mary seemed discouraged or resentful over her failure in the last arithmetic assignment and found time to help her analyze her errors and show her how to learn not to fail that way again. When a high school teacher observed that Katie was avoided by other students and seemed lonely and neglected, he put her on a committee on which she could make a contribution to the class. In ways like these, teachers observe students daily in order to meet their needs more adequately.

In the Interview. Here also there is opportunity for the teacher-counselor to observe personality traits otherwise unmeasurable. The first impression the student makes on the interviewer gives an indication of how he may be affecting other persons. What the individual says—and what he does not say—is important. Observation of the student's expressive movements and other indications of how he is feeling makes it possible for the interviewer to respond to his feelings.

In Testing Situations. The observations made during the administration of individual tests are often as significant as the quantitative results obtained. Behavior such as the following may be noted:

1. Willingness. Observe the degree of eagerness and enthusiasm, or of reluctance, with which the student approaches the task.

2. Effort. Is the student lackadaisical, or does he put forth his utmost effort in accomplishing the task?

3. Physical activity. Does he show marked excitement, restlessness, or nervous activity? Is he calm and poised, or very much repressed in expression of any kind?

4. Speech. A great deal may be learned from the individ-

ual's speech—whether it is fluent or hesitant, whether the student verbalizes freely or says no more than is necessary in answering questions. His vocabulary and sentence structure give indications of his intelligence.

5. Auto-criticism. The extent to which the individual criticizes his own work. Some students are very critical of everything they do and say. They are worried for fear they have not said the right thing, have not made the right answer. On the other hand, others may make a response that is very poor but still act as though it were entirely satisfactory to them and to others.

6. Attention. Students vary greatly in the degree to which they can concentrate on a particular task. Some will be distracted by any activity in the room; even without environmental distraction they will have difficulty in keeping their attention on the matter in hand. In an interview some students will be so concerned with what they are going to say that they will not even listen to what the other person is saying, while others will listen and incorporate the conversation into their own thinking.

7. Understanding of directions. Sometimes a student's lack of understanding may be attributable to generally poor reading ability or, more specifically, to difficulty in reading directions, a technic in which he has had very little practice in elementary and high school years.

In the case of an adolescent girl referred by her older sister, the examiner reported the following observations, which later proved very significant in understanding the situation:

F— was enthusiastic about taking the tests and put forth her utmost effort. She seemed quite keyed up during the testing period and her excitement was expressed in movements of her hands and body. Her conversation was fluent and mature and, although she talked more than is usual in the testing situation, it did not seem to be an expression of nervousness. She showed normal attention and insight into the tasks. When a person entered the room, she looked up, but returned immediately to the work. She required no elaboration of the instructions for doing each test. She showed no unusual depression at failure nor any signs of being easily discouraged. In spite of her inability to

fit in the pieces on the formboard test, she showed no sign of diminishing effort. Although she was told that she had failed to finish the boards in the allotted time, she asked to be allowed to work until she completed them. She showed very poor perception of form, but kept on purely by the trial-and-error method through the first five boards. While taking the *Otis Self-Administering Test*, she said she had always had trouble with arithmetic, but that she liked to work on hard problems—the night before she had worked an hour on one problem and finally got it right. “It gives me a lot of satisfaction to get something hard,” she said. She repeated this statement when she was working on the difficult formboards.

The value of this kind of observation to the teacher to whom the specialist gives the test results is obvious. In this case, the marked disparity between the girl’s emotionally mature response to difficulty in the test situation and her sister’s remark that “F—— goes all to pieces when she meets a difficult situation” gave a most important clue. It later developed that it was the older sister, not F——, who was in need of treatment.

Many of the tests used in vocational guidance give opportunity for significant observation in a particular frame of reference. They give a picture of the individual’s level of performance and his method of approach to the kinds of problems presented. For example, a subject’s expressions of irritation and his method of work in a finger dexterity or mechanical aptitude test are as important for his vocational guidance as his skill in doing the tasks.

Observation during the administration of a group test also aids in the interpretation of an individual’s score. The examiner and his assistants should be alert to observe failure to understand or to follow directions; evidence of fatigue, illness, or emotional disturbance; attempts to copy answers from other students’ papers. For example, during a reading test given to a ninth grade class, an observer not connected with the program wrote the following record:

During the reading test it was apparent that M—— was a fast reader, for she always finished each part of the test before anyone else in the group of twenty-two. She was evidently deter-

mined to get a high score, honestly or not. She usually started the subtests before the signal to begin was given, and, when she had finished a portion before the "Stop" signal, she surreptitiously turned her booklet back to work on a previous part she had not finished. Three times she kept on working after the signal to stop was given. Once the psychologist administering the test noticed this and told her to erase the last number she had written. M—— nodded, but did not erase.

This observation gave some insight into the girl's personality as well as information essential in interpreting her test score.

✓ What Teachers Should Observe in Students ✓

It is obviously impossible for a teacher to observe all the behavior of every student. He must select the most significant behavior. To select what is most significant from the standpoint of an individual's development is very difficult; to teach this art is still more difficult. One reason for the difficulty is that the relationship between the student and the observing teacher is constantly influencing the student's behavior. There are, however, some investigations that suggest the relative importance of different kinds of observed conduct.

Wickman's early study of this question² and similar later investigations have emphasized the fact that the kind of behavior that teachers tend to observe—fighting, being noisy in class, impertinence, talking out of turn, disobedience, and other behavior disturbing to the teacher—is not so important as the kinds of behavior that teachers tend to ignore or even unwittingly to reward—unsocialness, suspiciousness, unhappiness, resentfulness, fearfulness, bullying, and the qualities of being easily discouraged, suggestible, overcritical of others, sensitive, overbearing, sullen. The latter kinds of behavior, as already suggested, may be danger signals. The teacher should recognize them and, if they persist and become more pronounced, should seek whatever expert help is available to deal with them.

² E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, p. 27. The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, New York, 1929.

The teacher's main attention, however, should be focused on positive personality trends, such as those on the rating scale prepared by a committee of the Progressive Education Association. This scale is now incorporated in the American Council on Education cumulative personnel record. The traits that this group selected as most important for teachers to observe were:

- Responsibility.
- Creativeness.
- Influence or leadership.
- Adjustability.
- Concern for others.
- Serious purpose.
- Emotional stability.

There are several advantages in focusing attention on commendable behavior. First, it helps to establish a good relationship with the students and to direct their attention to good qualities that they can develop. Second, it directs the teacher's attention to good behavior on which he can build. That is, it is psychologically sound to "accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative."

In addition to social and emotional behavior, other aspects of development should also be observed. Physical factors are important: general appearance, coordination, health; evidences of eyestrain, poor hearing, fatigue, malnutrition; poor posture, pimply skin or acne, chronic sinus infection, and other physical impairments. A composite impression of slouching posture, disinterest in active games, and lack of normal exuberance calls for investigation by the nurse or doctor.

Academic abilities and work habits should also be noted: ability to get adequate meaning from the printed page with reasonable speed, word knowledge, number ability, ability to think clearly and logically, special skills and abilities, as in arts and crafts, writing, music, athletics. Symonds³ observed the study habits of high school boys during study and class periods. He selected a boy and followed him from room to room during the day, observing his every word and action.

³ Percival M. Symonds, "Study Habits of High School Pupils," *Teachers College Record*, 27:713-724, April, 1926.

If the boy became conscious of being observed, the investigator temporarily turned his attention elsewhere. Morrison⁴ observed and charted the number of minutes a pupil spent apparently concentrating on his work and the number of minutes spent in various distractions. The following record of a high school boy was made by the writer:

- 11:00 Looks through desk.
- 11:02 Looks idly through book.
- 11:05 Reads slowly.
- 11:12 Gazes out of the window.
- 11:15 Reads rapidly.
- 11:29 Talks with neighbor.
- 11:33 Reads about a page.
- 11:38 Plays with pocketknife.
- 11:40 Reads rapidly.
- 11:45 Leaves room.

Interests are closely allied with abilities. Frequently, if a student's vital center of interest is discovered and geared into his school work, he makes marked progress.

Nor should first impressions be neglected. The way an individual impresses people on first acquaintance is often highly important for his personal and professional success. An employer's first impression, for example, may determine whether the applicant is hired; or it may influence the employer's interpretation of what the applicant says and does later on.

Another area of observation that is of special significance concerns a student's response to difficulty, failure, or being thwarted. Some students go all to pieces in a difficult situation; they overreact emotionally to failure; they have a low tolerance for frustration. Generalizations, of course, cannot be made until the personnel worker has observed students long enough so he can see how they work out their problems. Then, at strategic points, he can help them learn to meet failure constructively—to learn from it rather than to withdraw from it.

⁴ Henry C. Morrison, *Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Revised Edition), Chap. IX. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

✓ Methods of Observing Students' Behavior ✓

The teacher's observations may be few or many, scattered or systematic. In general, the larger their number and the more systematic they are, the more accurate is the picture they present of students' abilities, interests, and personality trends. Some teachers observe only the behavior that is forced upon their attention—usually conduct that is annoying to them or disturbing to the class. Other teachers select one or two students each class period to observe continuously. Still others spend fifteen minutes a week observing each student while the class is engaged in reading, drawing, or some other activity that does not require the teacher's constant attention.

However, the following procedure, used by research workers, is more complete and reliable: observe the entire situation; select a student for intensive observation; observe him in his regular activities, keeping a running account of his activities in five-minute intervals over a number of days. This technic has been found highly reliable and sufficiently objective and free from technicalities to be a useful instrument for guidance.

Of all the methods of making and recording observations, the behavior diary record gives the most complete picture of the student's development. It should begin with a summary of the information on the background and previous development of each entering student. It should contain descriptions of the same kind of behavior observed in different situations by different persons. It should cover a range of behavior, including the student's relations to classmates and to adults, his responses to difficulty and success, his emotional maturity and physical fitness, his special abilities and interests, as well as his academic achievement. From time to time, the data collected should be examined, interpreted, and synthesized, so that it may give an evolving picture of the individual. Having gained insight into apparent changes in the student's behavior, the counselor should next seek the reasons for these

changes. If there are deviations from the usual patterns of behavior, or inconsistencies, they should be noted; they may represent the beginning of an undesirable trend to be checked, or of a favorable trend to be encouraged.

The way in which the technic of observation is introduced to teachers makes a difference in its effectiveness. In one school the principal requested that each teacher make six anecdotal records a day and hand them in to the counselor. (It had been estimated that a teacher could write six records a day in about fifteen minutes.) This procedure had a compulsory element that the teachers resented. Moreover, like other teachers, they tended to record mostly negative types of behavior. Some of these records found their way into the pupils' annual summaries, and in two cases were thought to have blocked the pupils' admission to college. Because of these difficulties, the school's policy in regarding anecdotal records was changed. Now the teachers keep their own anecdotal records and use them in making their summaries of pupils. If, however, they think that another teacher or the counselor should have a particular bit of information, they pass it on.

The quality of recorded observation is influenced by a number of factors. Small classes, an informal atmosphere, and time for record-keeping are conditions that contribute to a high quality of observation. The teacher's interest in students as persons, his training in scientific observation, and his background in child study and psychology are also important factors. He needs to learn as much as possible about what is involved in the process of growing up. Instruction, practice, and supervision promote continuous improvement.

The skillful administrator will provide in a number of ways for continuous improvement in his teachers' observations. First, he will show the teachers that he appreciates the time and energy they have already expended in making reports of their observations. Second, by reading some of the best concrete descriptions of behavior in faculty meeting, he will convince the teachers that they are on the right track, and will help them recognize and write records that are valuable as indications of individual students' development.

Third, he, or a specialist in guidance, will show concretely how certain good records can be made still better. And fourth, he will see that the records are used in working with teachers individually on cases in which they are particularly interested or in case conferences.

✓ The Limitations of Teachers' Observation ✓

The limitations of one's observation should be recognized. At best, recorded observations represent only a very inadequate sampling of the student's total behavior. He may have done many things, good or bad, that did not come under the teacher's direct observation. It is impossible for any observer to report everything that a student says and does and the way he says or does it. The danger of making generalizations on the bases of small samples of behavior is too seldom recognized.

Moreover, reports of observation are, in general, notoriously inaccurate. Psychological research on the nature of evidence shows a wide variation in the reports of observers of the same situation. If much time elapses between the observation and the writing of the report, the observer may have forgotten or distorted the facts; thus the inaccuracy of the record is further increased.

Observation is also selective. The bias of the observer is a factor to be recognized. He may observe and record only the behavior in which he is interested or which fits his preconceived idea of the student. Or he may be biased, as so many teachers are, in looking for the worst instead of the best in students. If his idea of personality and student development is limited, his observations will be limited. Influenced by his own mind-set, prejudices, or desires, he may even see something that did not actually occur. The well-known "halo effect" likewise influences the teacher to report only certain kinds of behavior for a particular student. If an observer knows his prejudices, he can often avoid being influenced by them. Unconscious bias is the most dangerous.

Even if an observation is accurate and unbiased, it is still difficult to interpret. The same observed behavior may have very different meanings to two different students. For example, in one case rudeness may be nothing more than an expression of adolescent social awkwardness; whereas in another it may arise from deep-seated hostility to the world in general and to the teacher in particular. A student may be poor in vocabulary and hesitant in speech, not because he has low intelligence, but because he has had very little opportunity to talk with people or because he is inhibited in face-to-face situations; he may write far more fluently than he speaks. Another individual may conceal severe emotional tension under a calm exterior. Psychological consistency for the individual may not be logical consistency to the observer. It is obvious that observation has little or no meaning until something is known of the background and personality of the individual observed.

✓ The Values Found in Teachers' Observation ✓

Despite its limitations, the technic of observation has many values. In one respect, the observer is superior to the camera, if he is an intelligent "selector." The teacher who has observed many children in the same situation has a frame of reference in which he can judge the significance of individual behavior. This advantage is still greater, of course, in the clinical testing situation. Even in the classroom, however, observation is the most useful instrument available at present for studying the trends of students' social and emotional development in life situations. Many opportunities are offered to study the ways in which a student responds to playmates, classmates, members of his family, and other persons in a variety of situations.

Even if he becomes conscious of being observed, this awareness may stimulate him to modify his behavior for the better. If he knows he is being observed by the teacher with respect to responsibility, cooperation, and other characteristics on a rating scale, these items may become immediate and concrete

goals for him. Thus observation may contribute directly to the student's personality development.

Another value of observation is that it promotes the growth of the teacher in personnel work. When the teacher becomes interested in observing individual students, it is no longer possible for him to see his class as a blurred mass. He sees them as individuals with certain potentialities for growth and for making progress toward certain goals. From the standpoint of teacher education, even brief observations are valuable because they tend to make the teacher child-conscious and help him to see the need for more knowledge in order to understand each student. They lead him to ask the question, "Why does this individual behave in this way?"

Observation, as described in this chapter, is more closely allied to life situations than are personality tests; it is more specific and exact than the generalizations people are tempted to make without any careful and systematic observation. At the present time there is no better way than observation to find out how an individual's personality actually functions in real situations. Records of observations are a valuable supplement to data from other sources and should be more generously included in cumulative records and case studies in support of generalizations.

Unless teachers are convinced of the value of recording their observation, they will not take the time to do it. Already swamped with clerical work, they resist filling out any more forms. Moreover, they feel dissatisfied with their records unless they have had training in what to observe, how to observe it accurately, and how to use their observations in the guidance of students.

✓ Rating Scales Used to Aid Observation ✓

Rating scales are a condensed method of recording observations. They are related to observation in two main ways: they may direct observation, or they may summarize it. Their value in directing observation toward behavior significant to the student's development has already been men-

tioned. Their value as a summary of observations remains to be considered.

In order that rating scales be of any value at all, they must be based on good observation. The translation of observation into rating scale form is facilitated by:

1. Limiting the number of characteristics to be rated. It is impossible for a teacher to rate thirty to forty students on each of twenty-five different traits.
2. Describing the behavior to be rated as nearly as possible in the form in which the teacher will be likely to observe it. For example, the rating scales developed by Van Alstyne⁵ and her associates are organized around situations in which every teacher has opportunity to observe the kinds of behavior to be rated.
3. Providing space in which the teacher may make explanations or give illustrations supporting his rating.
4. Providing space in which the teacher may write supplementary paragraphs to complete his picture of the individual's behavior.
5. Allowing a long enough period for observation before the rating is made and making it clear that no rating should be made if the teacher does not have adequate basis for making it. No rating at all is much better than a superficial or inaccurate rating.
6. Giving clear directions for using the rating scale and offering instruction and practice in improving observation.
7. Arranging to have the rating scale filled out by different persons who have opportunity to observe the student under different conditions.

The Personality Rating Scale developed many years ago by the Committee on Personality Measurement of the American Council on Education exemplifies many of these good features. Two items from the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Be-

⁵ Dorothy Van Alstyne and the Winnetka Public School Faculty, *Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes*. Winnetka Educational Press, Winnetka, Illinois, 1935.

Dorothy Van Alstyne and the Francis Parker School Faculty, *Record for Describing Attitudes and Behavior in High School*. 330 Webster Avenue, Chicago.

havior Rating Schedules⁶ illustrate another form of rating that is widely used in industry as well as in educational institutions:

8. Is he slovenly or neat in personal appearance?

Unkempt Very slovenly	Rather negligent	Incon- spicuous	Is concerned about dress	Fastidious Foppish
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27. Is he generally depressed or cheerful?

Dejected Melancholic In the dumps	Generally dispirited	Usually in good humor	Cheerful Animated Chirping	Hilarious
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The rater puts a cross or check at the point which seems to him to describe the individual most accurately. Students are impressed by the similarity between the characteristics teachers emphasize and the items included on the scales which many large industries and business firms use to rate their employees.⁷

In using rating scales teachers must resist the temptation (1) to check any item on which they have had too little chance to observe, (2) to be overinfluenced by some recent occurrence, (3) to let an unconscious dislike of an individual color their rating of him, (4) to rate generally high the students who are courteous and compliant and to rate generally low those who are crude and difficult to get along with.

In interpreting ratings of other persons, teachers and teacher-counselors should recognize all these possible sources of error. They should also realize that individual raters have different standards and that different situations and personalities may evoke quite different behavior from the same student. Probably the greatest contribution of rating scales is to stimulate a teacher to study and investigate further developmental trends in each of his students. Since teachers are so often called upon to rate students as to personality and fitness for college or a vocation, they should take advan-

⁶ Haggerty-Olson Wickman *Behavior Rating Schedules*. Copyright 1930 by World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

⁷ Robert D. Falk, *Your High School Record: Does It Count?* South Dakota Press, Pierre, South Dakota, 1943.

tage of the work on rating scales already done and use the best forms and the best methods recommended at the present time.

✓ Conclusion ✓

Observation and rating are not simple "objective" technics. They involve the complex interrelation between the person being observed and the observer. The limitations of these technics should be recognized, both in making records and in using them. Especially should the teacher resist the temptation to generalize from limited observation, to label and judge rather than to describe behavior, to interpret without adequate knowledge of the meaning of the observed conduct in the student's life, and to color the records with his own opinions and feelings.

With all its faults, however, observation remains a basic and important counseling technic. It directs attention to the individual as he is actually functioning in his daily living. It supplies information on aspects of his development that are not adequately measured by tests or other instruments. It raises questions that can only be answered by a more thorough study of the individual.

IX

DAILY SCHEDULES AND AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

The daily schedule provides a framework in which the more detailed observations of behavior take on greater meaning; it rounds out the picture of the individual's activities over twenty-four hours. In no other way can the teacher so easily obtain a wealth of information about students.

✓ Illustrative Daily Student Schedules ✓

A comparison of single-day schedules from each of three ninth grade high school students living in very different environments shows how much the teacher may learn from this kind of record in a few minutes. The reader will get a vivid impression of the differences in environment, in daily routine, and in interests as he reads each of these schedules:

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT I

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
6:00	Sleeping	90
7:30	Dressing, washing	20
7:50	Breakfast—four prunes and juice. Chatted	15
8:05	Got books together. Talked	15
8:20	Walked to school with girl	20
8:40	Put books away. Talked to teacher	5
8:45	Class called to order. Announcements	5
8:50	Hygiene—class work	40
9:30	English—class work	40
10:10	Social studies—class work	40
10:50	Assembly. A woman talked to us about politics	40

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
11:30	Class meeting. Discussed our mascot	15
11:45	Chapter meeting. Discussed our charity	15
12:00	Teacher talked to us about running in the halls and school rules	10
12:10	Lunch—one cream cheese and pimento sandwich and one glass of orange juice. Talked	20
12:30	Read	15
12:45	Class called to order	5
12:50	Latin—class work	40
1:30	Mathematics—class work	40
2:10	Got books together, put on hat and coat, and left the school	10
2:20	Went home on trolley car	10
2:30	Went down to museum with girl	25
2:55	Went through American wing. Looked at I, II, and III period furniture	125
5:00	Left on bus for home	30
5:30	Arrived home. Talked to Mother. Phoned	20
5:50	Talked. Got a surprise—a pet cat!	10
6:00	Supper—stewed celery, one baked potato, one piece of whole-wheat bread, one-fourth teaspoon butter, one apple, and a small piece of cake.....	40
6:40	Practiced	45
7:25	Dawdled. Talked. Phoned	20
7:45	Undressed. Took a bath	45
8:30	Heard of accident. Leaned out window trying to find out. Saw it!	30
9:00	Homework	60
10:00	Got into bed; slept	480
Total		1440

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT II

6:00	Washed and dressed	15
6:15	Worked commercial problems	15
6:30	Ate breakfast—meat sandwiches and water	30
7:00	Rode to school in car	20
7:20	Combed hair	10
7:30	Studied arithmetic	30
8:00	Visited with boy friend	15
8:15	To commercial class	60
9:15	To chorus	60
10:15	Assembly	30
10:45	In library reading <i>Sights Unseen</i>	60

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
11:45	To dinner	15
12:00	Worked on health chart	20
12:20	Visited with friends	40
1:00	In session working on civics	60
2:00	In session room reading <i>Sights Unseen</i>	60
3:00	To civics class	60
4:00	Rode home in car	20
4:20	Read newspapers	20
4:40	Foiled around with my brother	20
5:00	Helped mother	30
5:30	Helped father carry milk up and do chores	60
6:30	Helped prepare supper	30
7:00	Ate supper—potatoes, fried meat, milk, etc.	30
7:30	Read <i>Sights Unseen</i>	30
8:00	To bed and sleeping	600
Total		1440

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT III

6:00	Sleeping	90
7:30	Breakfast—waffles, coffee, grapefruit	30
8:00	Dressing	15
8:15	Walked to school, slowly	15
8:30	Went to bookkeeping, slowly	30
9:00	Recited. Received “bawling out”	30
9:30	Worked on books. Talked to boy	30
10:00	Reproved by Mr. L——. Recited	30
10:30	Collected money. Studied	30
11:00	Recited in English class. Talked	30
11:30	English discussion	60
12:30	Study hall. Talked to boy	30
1:00	Studied	25
1:25	Walked with boy; argued. Lunch	5
1:30	American history class	65
2:35	Study hall. Bored	65
3:40	Went to candy store with boys and girls. Talked	80
5:00	Ate one-half box of chocolates	75
6:15	Dressed for dinner	15
6:30	Dinner	40
7:10	Got ready for date	5
7:15	Played piano. Talked over phone	45
8:00	Date arrived	10
8:10	Went to show	120
10:10	Ate—hot chocolate	20

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
10:30	Came home. (Date left—good riddance!)	30
11:00	Undressed for bed; slept	420
		<hr/>
Total		1440

✓ Information Obtained from Daily Schedules ✓

These schedules yield a remarkable amount of insight into the economic and social conditions in the students' homes and neighborhoods. It is evident that the first schedule was written by a city girl who had well-to-do, intelligent parents concerned with her health and education. She was just about the right weight but thought she was fat; hence the self-imposed dieting—four prunes and juice composed her daily breakfast. The second schedule came from a country girl whose leisure time was largely occupied with home duties and who had few social and cultural advantages. Perhaps the reader has already guessed that the third schedule was written by a girl in a small town who had been selected for study by the principal as one of his "problem cases."

In addition to giving indications of the student's general background, daily schedules kept accurately for a week yield information on the following personal items:

Educational

School program and extraclass activities.

Time spent in studying each subject.

Time spent in going to and from school.

Vocational

Part-time work.

Religious

Church and Sunday-school attendance.

Attendance at church clubs.

Recreational and social

Ways in which the student spends his leisure time in the morning, afternoon, evening, on holidays, Saturdays, and Sundays. Amount of time spent in various kinds of recrea-

tion—outdoor: games and sports, hiking, camping; indoor: dancing, movies, reading, listening to or playing music, painting and drawing, handwork and household arts.

Nature of the student's recreation—alone; with others: boys, girls in gangs, in clubs, with one other person, with several, with younger children, with adults, with his own family, with persons outside the family.

Place of recreation—his own home, friends' homes, the street, the playground, club rooms, "joints," in autos.

Interests

Revealed insofar as the student is free to choose his own activities. The daily schedule gives a valuable check on interests expressed in an interview or on a check list.

Health habits

Choice of food in meals (if this detail is requested).

Regularity of meals.

Eating habits.

Sleep and rest.

Outdoor exercise.

Attitudes and values

If the student writes freely, he frequently reveals attitudes, as in the third schedule, in which dislike for school is suggested by the items, "Walked to school, slowly," "Study hall, bored." In contrast, another youngster, whose achievement in relation to her ability was the highest in the class, spontaneously wrote on each of her daily schedules, "Walked to school, briskly."

Relationships with family

Amount and kind of association with father and mother.

Amount and kind of association with brothers and sisters.

Relation with other relatives or boarders.

✓ Forms of the Daily Student Schedule ✓

The simple diary record form, illustrated in the three examples just given, yields the most accurate and revealing information. It consists of a detailed consecutive account of

the student's activities throughout the twenty-four hours. All that is needed is 8½" by 11" lined paper with this heading:

NAME	DAY	DATE
<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>

At the bottom of the page there may be certain supplementary items, which are helpful in interpreting the schedule:

Did you feel well—or have some illness today?
 Was this day typical? If unusual, in what respects?
 Were you able to make an accurate record of
 your activities? If not, what are the errors?

Another form of diary record is divided into fifteen-, thirty-, or sixty-minute blocks in which the student lists his activities. For college students, whose days fall more or less into hourly periods, this form of schedule is satisfactory. It has the advantage of reminding the student that he should account for every period of time during the day. It has the disadvantage of unnecessary bulkiness when activities are of two or three hours' duration and of becoming overcrowded when there is a rapid shifting from one activity to another.

In the summarized form of diary record, space is provided for each of the common types of daily activities. In each space the student writes at the end of the day the estimated amount of time he has spent in each activity. Obviously the inaccuracies in this form of schedule are great, because it is impossible for students to remember at the end of the day the exact number of minutes they have spent in studying, conversing with friends, walking, and the like. It is also difficult for them to agree in their classification of specific items. Moreover, this form omits details of daily living that give the greatest insight into habits and attitudes.

✓ Methods of Obtaining the Daily Schedule ✓

The method of obtaining schedules varies somewhat with the purpose for which they are to be used. Schedules may be kept by an entire class in order to reveal the special prob-

lems of individuals and the problems common to the group. Schedules may be secured to aid in the study of certain groups, such as students failing in academic work, discipline cases, and the "best all-round" students. Schedules may be obtained from individuals who wish to cooperate with the counselor in the solution of their difficulties. In each case the form of schedule may be modified so as to yield the desired information with the least amount of labor.

A few general directions, however, are applicable to most situations:

1. First, gain the interest and cooperation of the students. Use whatever appeal is effective for the particular group. In one high school in which considerable attention had been given to study habits and an interest in "being scientific" had been aroused, the introduction to schedule-keeping took this form:

We should all be as interested in finding out how we spend our time as in knowing how we spend our money. To keep daily schedules would be of value to you as well as to other students. Perhaps you are studying a great deal at home and want to do the work more quickly. Perhaps you need not study as much as you do, and could use your time in other interesting ways. Girls in other high schools and colleges are keeping records of the way they spend their time. How many of you would be interested in doing this?

We are most concerned with having these records scientifically accurate. You know from your chemistry and other subjects that nowadays everything must be scientific. You can make accurate records because you are intelligent and able to understand the method of keeping them; you are interested in doing it; and as a group you can be counted on for cooperation and honesty.

2. Emphasize the importance of (a) keeping the record from time to time during the day rather than waiting until the end of the day and (b) writing in detail everything that occurs. Supervisors of this project in one school mimeographed the following directions and gave them to each student, as well as reading them to the class on the day they began to keep their schedules:

1. Fill in code number, day, and date at the top of each page. On the first line write what you were doing at six A.M.

2. On the next line under 6:00, write the time at which you began to do something else. Write what this was in the space labeled "Activity."

3. Continue in this way during the day.

4. Be sure to write exactly what you did. Do not write just "studied" but "studied English," "studied history," or whatever it was you studied. After writing "breakfast," "lunch," or "dinner," put down what you ate. Instead of just "went to school," write how you went—whether walking, riding in a streetcar or in an automobile. Tell the names of the magazines you read and the plays you go to. No one will criticize you for your choice.

5. Be sure to write down what you do and the time you begin to do it during the day. *Do not wait until the end of the day to write your schedule.*

6. Write down exactly what happened. Unless these records are true and accurate they are of no value.

7. Record minutes for each activity in the right-hand column. This column should total 1,440 minutes.¹

3. If keeping the daily schedules is a school-wide project, obtain the cooperation of all the teachers in allowing their students to take several minutes at the beginning of each period to enter the previous activity on their schedules. This will call the students' attention to the importance of keeping the record from time to time during the day. Certain teachers may cooperate further: the mathematics teacher may include as part of his daily assignment the calculation of the minutes spent in each activity; the English teacher may count a clear statement of activities as part of the English assignment; the home economics teacher may make her entire homework requirement for the week an accurate record of the kind and amount of food eaten.

4. Read the schedules handed in the first day or two and make specific suggestions on how they may be improved.

Unless the interest and cooperation of the students are secured and maintained, the schedules are worthless. If a

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, "The Daily Schedule as an Aid to Advisers," *Teachers College Record*, 27:37-38, October, 1927.

teacher is unable to arouse a group's desire to make diary records of their daily activities, he had better drop the matter for the time being.

For guidance purposes, one week's schedule is sufficient. Even one day's record has value in supplementing other sources of information about the individual. If the student is willing to take major responsibility for his own appraisal, he will consider the daily schedule as one way of seeing more clearly how he really spends his time.

✓ Situations in Which the Daily Schedule Is Used ✓

As part of each student's developmental record, the daily schedule adds much to the understanding gained from the rest of the accumulated data. In reading the daily schedules, the teacher sees a procession of unique individuals. For example, he notes that one high school girl attends both church and Sunday school, spends a large portion of her leisure time with her family, and daily feeds the pet lamb. Another girl in the same grade plays golf at the country club on Sunday, is seldom at home, and reads Shaw and other sophisticated authors. The schedules reveal individual problems—problems of sleep, study, meals, use of leisure time, outdoor exercise, social relationships, and the like. Problems concerning the wise use of leisure show up vividly in the daily schedules. For example, one boy of a group of thirty-four eleventh grade boys studied by Rice and Brownlee² had only 2.4 hours of leisure during the school week, while another had 21.2 hours.

The daily schedule is also useful in learning about group problems. For example, in one high school, the pupils' records showed that the assignments in history were too heavy. One pupil studied English 150 minutes, French 420 minutes, and history 810 minutes during the week. The schedules of many other pupils showed a similar disproportionate amount

² George A. Rice and Robert E. Brownlee, "Leisure Activities of the Eleventh Grade Students, University of California," *University High School Journal*, 10:217, December, 1930.

of time spent on history. On further investigation, it was found that these pupils were spending more time studying history, not because they liked it better than other subjects, but because the teacher gave specific written assignments each day, which she rigorously marked. When the teacher herself saw the results of the time schedules, she voluntarily modified her assignments to enable the students to distribute their study time more equally.

Similarly, the need for more or fewer recreational activities in the school may be ascertained from the daily schedules. These records furnish one basis for planning a student activity program that will adequately supplement the out-of-school recreational opportunities and thus meet the needs of different groups.

The daily schedule is useful not only in the discovery of problems, but also in their solution. It is also an avenue through which *rapprochement* may be secured in an interview. It furnishes a starting point for discussion; counselor and student can proceed to consider desirable modifications in it. For example, a student whose daily program is lacking in social activities can be encouraged to consider his relation to his own age group and whether he should join a social club at school. A student who is engaging in a number of worthwhile non-school affairs may be relieved of some of his extra-curricular responsibilities at school. When a student of average ability who is failing in several subjects can see by an examination of his schedule that he is spending less time in study than other more successful pupils of equal ability, he may modify his daily program accordingly.

An effective approach to students who are not budgeting their time wisely is to acquaint them with the amount of time other students spend in sleep, study, recreation, and work. This information can be secured by summarizing the schedules of different groups of students. Both college and high school girls are interested in knowing that five hundred Mount Holyoke College students spent daily, on the average, three hours and twenty minutes in study, one hour and twenty minutes in physical activity, three hours and twenty minutes in social activities, forty minutes in religious activities, eight

hours and twenty minutes in sleep, and one hour and a half in eating meals.³ High school girls are interested in learning that sixty of the "best all-round" girls in six different high schools spent approximately two and one-half hours daily in study; the same amount of time in social activities; one hour each in physical activity, home duties, cultural activities such as reading and practicing or taking music lessons; nine hours and twenty minutes in sleep; one hour in dressing; and one hour and seventeen minutes in eating.⁴

The following individual cases, in which the daily schedules were used, concretely illustrate their value in dealing with the personal problems of students.⁵

A Girl Who Imagined She Was Overworking. The mother of a very intelligent, attractive girl came to the school to protest about the amount of preparation required for the work in English 12. (English 12 comprises a group of college preparatory students whose excellent work has earned them an invitation to membership in the class.) The mother said that even though her daughter was staying up late to study she nevertheless could not complete the preparation required for English 12.

The suggestion was made that the daughter, B——, drop English 12 and take the usual senior college preparatory work. This B—— did not want to do. She said that all the pupils in English 12 felt the work was too heavy; that while they enjoyed the class, they thought too much was demanded of them.

The dean suggested the idea of studying the time schedules of B——'s companions and comparing them with B——'s own. B—— was asked if she knew whether any of the English 12 students had a daily program similar to hers: English 12; United States History 12; French D; Physics. B—— named five girls who, she thought, had programs almost identical with her own, and these five were asked if they would be willing to assist in a little study of the daily activities of their group. They gladly agreed to help, and together with B—— they kept daily time schedules for two weeks.

³ A. Comstock, "Time and the College Girl," *School and Society*, 21:326-327, March 14, 1925.

⁴ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, "Activities of High School Girls," *Teachers College Record*, 30:566, March, 1929.

⁵ The author is indebted to Mrs. Mary F. Pilcher for the description of these two cases from the senior high school in which she was dean of girls.

When the schedules were returned to the office, an examination of them showed that B——'s was the only schedule in which concerts, shopping tours, driving downtown, afternoon tea, etc., appeared frequently; it also showed very little time, often none at all, spent on English. Since all six girls were of much the same type—attractive, intelligent, popular, eager for a good time, interested in school activities other than academic work, B—— realized when she saw her own record and compared it with the records of her friends that her complaint of too much English work would scarcely hold. She protested no longer.

Her mother said some months afterward: "Keeping a time schedule was excellent for B——. It showed her what I already knew, that she was not planning her time well and was not doing much real studying." A year later, when B——'s brother was having difficulty with his work, the mother asked the principal if the boy could not be taught how to keep a daily time schedule.

A Pupil Carrying a Heavy Program. A tenth grade pupil was carrying at her own request an unusually heavy program of work. The dean of girls, doubtful of the wisdom of so heavy a load of studies and a little anxious about the amount of rest and recreation that this young student might be getting, asked the girl to keep a daily schedule for a week or two. The schedule seemed to prove that the girl was neither overworking nor leading an unbalanced existence, at least during those weeks.

✓ The Limitations of the Daily Schedule ✓

The most common sources of inaccuracy in the daily schedule are the student's desire to make a good impression, his failure to keep the record during the day and his consequent inability to remember all his activities and the amount of time spent on each, and variations in activity from day to day and from season to season. The first of these sources of error is lessened when the student feels he is keeping the record in order to understand himself, not to supply information to the teacher or counselor. The second can be almost eliminated by effective directions and the daily supervision and cooperation of all teachers. The third source of error can be checked by having the student indicate whether the

schedule is typical or unusual and in what respect. A study of the reliability of this type of record showed little difference between activities in the early fall and in the winter, with the exception of recreation. In the early fall the boys were all out for football; in the winter they were spending much of their time practicing for an operetta.

✓ The Values of the Daily Schedule ✓

Like other technics, the daily schedule is never used as a sole source of information. It widens the scope of the teacher's observation; it raises questions to be answered in the interview; it calls attention to the need for information that can be obtained from standardized tests. Viewed as a supplement to, and a framework for, other technics, its values predominate over its limitations.

This personnel technic has value to the teacher and teacher-counselor, the parent, and the student. The values to the teacher and counselor may be summarized as follows:

1. By supplying a detailed picture of the student's twenty-four-hour day, the daily schedule increases the teacher's understanding of many aspects of an individual's development—physical, intellectual, social, religious.

2. It often suggests explanations of low achievement, poor health, and lack of sociability.

3. It can be used as a means of gaining *rapport* and guiding the student's thinking in an interview.

4. By supplying a framework of familiar routine, it makes it easy for the student to suggest and carry out methods of achieving a better balance in his daily living.

Incidentally, it is equally enlightening for the teacher or the counselor to keep a daily schedule of his own day. This practical kind of job analysis is a first aid to increased professional efficiency.

The values of the student's daily schedule to the parent were suggested in the description of the girl who imagined she was overworking. By examining the daily schedule together, the parent and child can see more clearly what is

good and what is poor about his daily program, and what each can do to give it a better balance.

To the student, the daily schedule is a kind of mirror. It shows him exactly how he is using his time and how he may modify his program advantageously. Thus he gets help on one of his major problems: the budgeting of time. Moreover, a critical examination of one's daily schedule is "an exercise in self-evaluation"—especially in the evaluation of the daily habits that are the building blocks of character.

✓ The Autobiography and Life History ✓

In observation, a student is viewed through another's eyes; in the daily schedule he makes his own objective record of his activities; in the autobiography he has an opportunity to view his life as a whole and tell how he feels about it. Each adds an important element to the fuller understanding of the student.

Early in the school term the teacher may introduce the autobiography as a way of getting acquainted with all his students. He may say to them, "The quickest way for us to get acquainted with one another is for you to tell me about yourself and for me to tell you about myself. You can tell me about your home, your friends, and the things you like."⁶ The autobiography may also be written as the culmination of a unit on self-appraisal.

Excerpts from Autobiographies. A few short excerpts from very complete autobiographies written by gifted high school students will illustrate some of the values of this technic. The first gives a glimpse of a happy outdoor childhood:

I remember, when I was nine years old, we lived in the open country. One of my friends had some horses and we used to race through the old cornfields, shouting like Indians. I remember, too, a creek near by, where we used to wade in the summer and build huge dams of rock and mud. When it flooded, we

⁶ Ruth Strang, *Every Teacher's Record*, p. 17. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

saw all our hard work crumble in the swift waters, but we would soon start another, hoping it would hold this time. Sometimes we'd take our lunch and, with our dogs at our heels, would go on long hikes. When the sun grew hot we'd find a shady spot, lie down, eat our lunch and go on again. As daylight faded we'd come trudging home, hungry, tired, but very happy.

The second excerpt describes the influence of two different types of schools and pupils:

At the end of my sophomore year I changed from a very traditional to a progressive school. I believe this school has done more than anything else to change my personality. The conservative school taught us to "speak only when spoken to" and never to venture our own opinions on any subject. My present school's policies are quite the opposite; it is slowly but surely making a new person out of me. It has dispelled most of my self-consciousness, and all of my meekness. The only difficulty I've had is in working without being driven to it.

I found it hard to get used to the different types of personalities. City children are very different from country or suburban children. They lead a more unnatural existence than people who are closer to the country. However, I am now beginning to understand my city friends better and am getting used to the confusion of traffic, the hard stares of strangers, and the once terrifying roar of the subway. At first I was inclined to think some of my classmates rude, and in many ways thoughtless and selfish. Maybe because they are the products of life in a big city.

All in all, I was pleasantly surprised to find so many really human teachers on the staff. Recently I was criticized for my inability to "make friends" with one of my teachers. Perhaps this is because I have spent so much time in an old-fashioned school where the teacher held herself aloof and was entirely unconcerned as to whether we had any personal problems. Also during the past year I have been developing a sense of independence; that is, I prefer to handle my own problems as well as I am able to.

The third quotation is part of a much longer description of the way a sensitive child responded to three major tragedies in her life:

My mother died when I was five, and my brother and I went to live with our grandparents. My older brother was always

doing things I wanted to do but could not. He was the thoughtful, literary type, while I liked to spend my time doing something with my hands. That was one reason we never played together. One thing we had in common—our liking for pets. Although my brother and I didn't get along too well because of our different interests, yet I always worshipped him. Three summers ago, when I was visiting a friend, I received a telegram telling me to come home at once. On the way home, they told me my brother was ill; when I reached home, I learned he had passed away. I was heartbroken for days. We were becoming closer than ever. It seemed so unfair. He was so young and gifted.

The fourth expresses a boy's philosophy of life as he looks toward the future:

At the age of seventeen it is pretty hard to have a sound philosophy on life. Right now I feel that I should take advantage of my youth to do things that I may never have time to do again. I'm not looking for any gifts from life and therefore if I do get a "lucky break" it will all be "so much to the good"; and if I don't, I won't have wasted any time waiting for one to come along. I don't believe that destiny has a reserved seat in Success for every fellow. I'll have to make my own place. Life is an experience, and I think sometimes as we grow older we are inclined to forget that and take life a little too seriously. I don't think that everything that happens has to have a good side. It's going to be the good and the bad alike. . . .

The next quotations illustrate the kind of autobiographical material that may be obtained from less mature and less gifted children in the eighth grade of a public school:⁷

I was born on February 23, 1923. My mother and father was very good to me. I heard that I was a very pretty baby. When my cousin was borned, I did not have enough attention. I would always fight with him. As I grew older, I got some sense and did not fight with him.

When I started to go to school, my teacher used to like me very much. I was one of the best boys in the room. When I got into the higher grades, I began to dislike school. Every time I had a chance, I would stay out of school.

One day my father told me that if I would improve in school,

⁷ Spelling and grammar are uncorrected.

I would get a bicycle for Christmas. After that I began to grow very interested in the things we did in school. . . .

I built a Puppet Show for a teacher, and then was on a committee to build and produce a puppet stage and show. The show was very successful.

When I came to Junior High School, I was frightened by all the people. After a couple of years, I became a very good pupil.

Many of the children in this group have foreign-born parents. Their autobiographies frequently mention family relationships:

My mother and dad say I was good when I was young compared to what I am now. I have always enjoyed fighting with my brothers and sisters; in fact, I still do.

My brother and I have many quarrels, but I am glad to have an older brother. He always takes my girl friends and I to school dances and parties and he never allows boys to act out of place in front of me. My mother always says I should be glad I have a brother, which I am.

My brother is much older than me and spends a great deal of his time teaching me to swim and play ball and tennis. One day I went swimming with him. The life guard came up to me and asked who had taught me to swim so well, and of course the credit went to my brother. I also have an older sister who has taught me the art of being a lady.

Teachers, too, come in for their share of comment:

One teacher that I did not like was the gym teacher. She always picked on me. I was rather fat and she always made me turn somersaults and cartwheels in front of the class and they always laughed.

Some of these eighth graders are beginning to think about their vocations. One describes her interest as follows:

I love to do what Mom calls a waste of time, and that is to draw dress designs. I have taken a few art lessons, but I didn't like them. Another hobby that I have is to buy many different styles of clothes, and lots of them. As soon as I'm through school I mean to begin to study dress designing right away. It's the only thing I'm interested in. I'd like to take a trip next year to Paris to study styles, but I can't, so I'll stay at home.

Form of Autobiography. In form, the autobiography may vary from a freely written account to a series of detailed answers to questions. The instructions may be simply as follows:

Write the story of your life as fully as possible. There is no time limit and no need to hurry. Put in just as much information as you can about events or anything else you would care to include.

The following instructions are somewhat more directive:

Read the outline to get a general idea of the possible scope of the autobiography; then write freely; and finally reread the outline to see that you have covered all the main items.

The items in the outline included family history and relations, economic and social home conditions, early development, school experiences, sex experiences, recreation, relations with friends, emotional development, wishes and interests, goals and aspirations, social impulses, educational plans, vocational experiences and plans, estimate of oneself and the world. The student may be also asked to write about what has made him happy or unhappy, what he likes or dislikes. One approach that has been used successfully is to say, "Try to make me feel the way you felt, and see things the way you saw them."

A detailed questionnaire may be prepared to cover the same topics, or as many as are appropriate to the age and interest of the group. The autobiographical questionnaire used in Breathitt County, Kentucky,⁸ exemplifies a simple form suitable for boys and girls in the elementary or junior high school.

If spelling, punctuation, and literary style are not stressed, the student's account is likely to be more authentic and descriptive of his true feelings. The way in which the individual presents his life story, when he is left to write freely, in itself reveals his personality. Some persons may write only of external events without explanation; others may try to justify their actions; still others may confess faults they have

⁸ Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*, pp. 199-208. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943.

previously concealed; a few try to analyze the motives leading to their every act.

Limitations of the Autobiography. Autobiographical material is limited by the student's ability to express himself in writing. It is a good method for the verbally inclined who are reticent in face-to-face relations. Because it may be influenced by literary models or the desire to impress the reader, it is misleading if accepted at its face value. Yet divergence from reality is in itself an important indication. From the standpoint of the interviewer, the autobiography, if written fully and with feeling, may limit the interviewer's opportunity to obtain clarification of information and to administer treatment; if the person feels that he has already "told all," it may be difficult to get him to talk freely in the interview. On the other hand, the autobiography may make a point of contact with the interviewer that will assist in establishing a good relationship.

Values of the Autobiography. The values of the autobiography tend to outweigh its disadvantages. It gives a general total sketch of the individual—a "gestalt"—into which other pieces of information can be fitted and against which they can be interpreted. The autobiography frequently throws light on social, psychological, and educational conditions, hidden and changing interests, aspirations and desires, views of oneself and of one's role in the world. This kind of information may not be obtainable by means of any other technic.

In the study and treatment of delinquent boys in Chicago, Shaw found that the boy's own story "reveals useful information concerning at least three important aspects of delinquent conduct: (1) the point of view of the delinquent, (2) the social and cultural situation to which the delinquent is responsive, and (3) the sequence of past experiences and situations in the life of the delinquent."⁹ In books describing juvenile delinquents and in other books about adolescents

⁹ Clifford R. Shaw, *The Jack-Roller*, p. 3. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1930.

the biographical excerpts are often the most illuminating passages.

The autobiography suggests leads that can be further explored in the process of counseling; it may serve as an introduction to the interview. Sometimes it reveals unrecognized ability in writing.

Another of its values is the release that comes from expressing pent-up feelings. This is the so-called catharsis, or "psychic safety valve," that operates when emotions are released in any creative form.

The autobiography helps the student to know himself. One may achieve objectivity by seeing his life spread out before him, as it were, and getting a steady, clear-eyed look at it. Thus the writing of an autobiography may help the individual to understand some of his inner conflicts.

In short, autobiographical material is another source of understanding for the student and for his teacher or teacher-counselor.

X

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS; PROJECTIVE METHODS

There comes a time when the teacher wants to fill in his general impression of a student with certain precise details. For this purpose psychological tests are useful. From them he may learn more about the student's present ability to do school work, his academic achievement, his ability to acquire skill under favorable conditions, and his personality trends and interests.

✓ Is the Student Able to Do School Work? ✓

Teachers are frequently confronted with such questions as these: Does this student have the mental ability to do algebra, Latin, and other college preparatory subjects? Is he likely to succeed in college? If so, in which college? Will he be able to do the kind of abstract thinking required in the professions, or in certain other vocations?

Examples of Group Tests of Mental Ability. Help in answering these questions can be obtained from intelligence or scholastic aptitude tests. These are of many different kinds, measuring different aspects of mental ability. Those most widely used by teachers are the group intelligence tests. Among the group tests of mental abilities are the following:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

California Test of Mental Maturity. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Grades: Kindergarten-1, 1-3, 4-8.

- Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests*. Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Nine batteries beginning with Grade 1 and continuing to adult level.
- Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 1-4, 4-9.
- Pintner General Ability Tests: Verbal Series*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.
- Pintner-Cunningham Primary Test*. Kindergarten-Grade 2.
- Pintner-Durost Elementary Test*. Grades 2-4.
- Pintner Intermediate*. Grades 4-9.

FOR JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL OR BOTH

- American Council Psychological Examination*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. High School Edition, grades 9-12.
- California Test of Mental Maturity*. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Grades 7-10, 9-adults.
- Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities*. Science Research Associates, Chicago. For ages 11 to 17.
- Junior Scholastic Aptitude Test* sponsored by the Secondary Education Board; distributed and scored by the Educational Records Bureau, 437 West 59th Street, New York City. Grades 7-9.
- Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests* (see above). Highest battery. Grade 9-maturity.
- Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Beta Test, grades 4-9; Gamma Test, high school and colleges.
- Pintner General Ability Tests: Verbal Series*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 9-12.
- Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 7-12.

FOR COLLEGE

- A.F.I. General Educational Development Battery*. Cooperative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York City.
- American Council Psychological Examination*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. College Freshman Edition.
- College Entrance Examination Board Scholastic Aptitude Test*. College Entrance Examination Board, Princeton, N. J.
- Thorndike CAVD Scales*. Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, New York City. For age 3 to superior adult.
- Yale Educational Aptitude Tests*. Department of Personnel Study, New Haven, Connecticut.

Limitations of Tests of Mental Ability. These tests do not tell everything about an individual's mental ability. If there be a general intelligence or powerhouse of mental energy,

described by Spearman, that can be turned on for the performance of any kind of mental task, no test has yet been devised to measure it adequately. Nor are these tests pure measures of native mental ability; they all depend somewhat on school achievement, especially in vocabulary, reading, and arithmetic. They do not always distinguish between a student's potential mental ability and his present functioning level, nor do they appraise the individual's success in dealing with life situations. Moreover, none measures adequately all the aspects of intelligence—the adaptable, creative kind of intelligence, social intelligence, mechanical intelligence. Progress has been recently made, however, in describing and measuring a variety of factors—linguistic and quantitative—that enter into intelligent behavior.

A single score may be misleading. For a number of reasons, a person may not demonstrate his real ability on a test. Consequently his scores may fluctuate from test to test. Cases have been reported in which the score changed as much as forty points from one test to another. All this spells the need for caution in the use of intelligence test results.

Individual Intelligence Tests. If a student's results on group intelligence tests do not correspond to the impression the teacher has gained from observation and daily contacts, the need for an individual test given by a qualified psychologist or counselor is indicated. This is likely to be more reliable than a group test because it is a more comprehensive measure of mental functioning and because a skilled examiner is able to induce the subject to put forth his best effort on each part of it. The most widely used individual test is the Revised Stanford-Binet Scale, whose two forms are most useful for children up to about sixteen years of age. The results are reported as mental age, which may be used in computing IQ—the individual's mental age divided by his chronological age. The expert tester transmits to the teacher not only a single index of intelligence, but also a description showing relationships of responses and special mental assets and limitations. For example, one student may make his highest scores on the verbal tests, show unusual ability to

remember sentences and digits, but fall down in mathematical concepts and reasoning.

For older adolescents and adults the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale has proved valuable. The scale consists of ten subtests; five deal with verbal material and five are of the performance type. It is possible to compute a verbal, a performance, and a total IQ.

Performance and Non-Language Tests. If there is indication that the individual is not demonstrating his true mental alertness because of a language handicap, the psychologist may give him a test that requires no reading or vocabulary knowledge. This is the performance type of test that is used widely with preschool children and, for the purpose suggested, with older children and adults. These tests, made up of form-board or other concrete materials, do not require the use or understanding of language. At the elementary school level, the two most commonly used tests of this type are the Grace Arthur Point Scale of Performance Tests and the Pintner-Paterson Scale of Performance Tests. At the adolescent and adult levels, the performance tests on the Wechsler-Bellevue Scale give an indication of the individual's functioning in this area, although here it is necessary for him to be able to understand simple verbal directions.

There are some group tests that attempt to measure intelligence without the use of language. Examples are the Pintner Non-Language Primary Test (Kindergarten-Grade 2) and the Pintner Non-Language Test (Grades 4-8).

Interpretation of Test Results. Although a person who is intelligent enough to be a teacher should, with practice, be able to administer and score a group intelligence test, he should get help from a guidance specialist in interpreting and using its results. The individual intelligence tests should be administered only by persons who have had specialized training in this field.

The results of group tests are most appropriately reported to teachers in the form of percentile ratings. These show the point on the distribution of scores at which an individual

stands. Thus a percentile of 90 means that 10 per cent of the scores were higher than his and 90 per cent fell below his. Similarly, a percentile of 50 means that he stood at the middle of the distribution of scores in his class, or in the larger population tested by the markers of the test. Knowing accurately a student's percentile rating in intelligence, a teacher has a better idea of what academic achievement to expect of him.

✧ Does the Student Have Enough Reading Ability? ✧

As ability to read affects practically all school achievement, it is important for the teacher to have precise knowledge of the student's reading proficiency. What does he remember after reading passages of different kinds? How does he organize the ideas he gets from reading? Does he stumble over common words? Over technical words? What is his attitude toward reading? What does he read?

Examples of Reading Tests. Various tests may be used to measure comprehension, vocabulary, and speed of reading:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Primary Test, grades 2-4; Intermediate Test, grades 3-6.

Gates Basic Reading Tests. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Grades 3-8.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Elementary Test, grades 4-8.

FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Cooperative Reading Comprehensive Test, C 1. Cooperative Test Service, New York. Four forms.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Advanced Test.

Traxler Reading Tests. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. Silent Reading Test, grades 7-10; High School Reading Test, grades 10-12.

Van Wagenen Reading Scales. Education Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Grades 7-12.

Van Wagenen-Dvorak Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities. Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Junior Division, grades 6-9; Senior Division, grades 10-12 and college.

FOR UPPER HIGH SCHOOL GRADES AND COLLEGE

Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test, C2. Cooperative Test Service, New York.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Advanced Test.

Nelson-Denny Reading Test. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Grade 9 through college.

Value of Reading Tests. Reading ability below expectation is easily detected by means of tests. Jack, for example, in the ninth grade had better than average scholastic aptitude, judging by his score on the Otis Quick-Scoring Test, Gamma form, and by his teachers' comments. However, on the Iowa Silent Reading Test, given at his entrance into high school, he reached a grade level of only 7.6, indicating that his reading ability was almost a year and a half behind his actual school level. This was borne out by his own statement that he spent three hours or more every night on his lessons.

Used together, intelligence tests and standardized and informal reading tests indicate fairly well the level of academic achievement of which the student is at present capable.

✓ What Has the Student
Learned Up to Now? ✓

Standardized achievement tests may be used occasionally to supplement the teacher's informal tests and to cover a wider range of facts that students of a given age and grade are generally expected to know. The construction of a valid, standardized test involves a survey and appraisal of objectives in the subject, the construction and analysis of items, and the obtaining of norms for various grades and ages.

Standardized Achievement Tests. The following are some of the widely used achievement tests:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts. Elementary Battery, grades 3-5; Advanced Battery, grades 6-8.

Metropolitan Achievement Tests (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Batteries for grades 1, 2, 3, 4-6, 7-8.

Progressive Achievement Tests. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Batteries for grades 1-3, 4-6, 7-9, 9-13.

Stanford Achievement Tests. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Batteries for grades, 2-3, 4-6, 7-9.

FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

The *Cooperative Tests* in various school and college subjects. Cooperative Test Service, New York. Grades 7-12.

Cooperative General Culture Tests for College Students. Cooperative Test Service, New York.

Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary. Ginn and Company, Boston, Massachusetts. Grades 9-12.

Iowa Tests of General Educational Development. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois. Junior and Senior High School.

Lincoln Diagnostic Spelling Test. Educational Records Bureau, New York. Four forms. Junior and senior high school.

Michigan Vocabulary Profile Test. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 9-12.

Use of Achievement Tests. These tests measure only certain kinds of achievement. Before selecting a test a teacher might well go over each item and check those that he teaches and that are in accord with his objectives. The conventional good student is likely to make relatively higher scores than the more creative and imaginative student who has difficulty in channeling his responses into a multiple-choice form of answer. The teacher will find the tests useful, however, in answering these questions: Does the student have sufficient background in the field to go on with advanced work? What progress has he made during the year in his general knowledge of the field? In colleges, achievement tests in each subject have been found useful in placing students in the courses for which they have adequate background. For example, a freshman who stands high on a standardized French test would be placed in second-year rather than first-year French. Thus duplication between high school and college work is decreased and the student is challenged to do his best.

✓ What Aptitudes Does
the Student Have? ✓

If *aptitude* is defined as "the ability to acquire skill under appropriate conditions, regardless of whether those conditions have arisen or not," it becomes evident that tests that

measure this quality are few in number. In industry progress has been made in devising tests that appraise a worker's potential skill. For example, finger dexterity tests are used to indicate a girl's "teachability" in certain mechanical processes. In education, however, there are no entirely satisfactory tests to show whether or not a student has promise for fields of study in which he has had no previous experience.

However, the following tests have been used in schools: Seashore Measures of Musical Talent, RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc., Camden, New Jersey; Meier-Seashore Art Judgment Test, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Iowa City, Iowa; various tests of clerical aptitude, such as the Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers; and tests of mechanical aptitude, such as the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, Psychological Corporation, New York, and the Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Tests, C. H. Stoelting Company, Chicago. When administered individually by experts, such tests yield helpful information about the subject's attitudes as well as about his aptitude. They indicate his level of performance at a particular time and show how he goes about working on tasks unfamiliar to him.

✓ What Are the Trends of His Personality? ✓

If the student has been systematically observed in various situations and interviewed from time to time, and if he has written autobiographical material under favorable conditions, the teacher should have a good picture of his functioning personality. The paper-and-pencil test results are easily influenced by the subject's desire to make a good impression, by inaccurate self-appraisal, and by misinterpretation of the directions or the items. One secondary school, which experimented for several years with a battery of personality and interest tests, found that "the expenditure of time and effort was not commensurate with the benefit the student derived from so elaborate a program."¹ During the

¹ Miriam Denness Cooper, "Testing and Diagnosis in a Secondary School," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 9:37, October, 1945.

last two years, accordingly, its routine testing program has been limited to the individual Rorschach given by a highly qualified worker; Wrenn's Study Habits Inventory, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California; and the California Personality Test, California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

Examples of Personality Tests. For college students, a test that has proved useful in individual cases is the Bell Adjustment Inventory, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. It consists of questions relating to home, health, and social and emotional adjustment. The Allport-Vernon A Study of Values, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts, also explores a very important aspect of a student's life. Another example of the personalities questionnaire is Allport's ascendance-submission self-rating scheme. This involves thirty-three situations and one hundred twenty-three responses in the form prepared for men. There is another form for women. Allport reports a reliability of .74 to .78. The following are sample situations:

1. At church, a lecture, or an entertainment, if you arrive after the program has commenced and find that there are people standing but also that there are front seats available which might be secured without "priggishness" or discourtesy, but with considerable conspicuousness, do you take the seats?
 - habitually
 - occasionally
 - never
2. (a) When you see someone in a public place or crowd whom you think you have met or known, do you inquire of him whether you have met before?
 - sometimes
 - rarely
 - never
- (b) Are you embarrassed if you have greeted a stranger whom you have mistaken for an acquaintance?
 - very much
 - somewhat
 - not at all

Values of Personality Inventories. Allport's statements regarding the test for ascendance-submission apply in general to other inventories of this kind. He believes this test "will prove of service in certain forms of personnel work, particularly within college." The uses which he suggests are: (1) to help the student "face himself in comparison with his contemporaries," i.e., to give self-knowledge; (2) to give certain very tentative suggestions regarding choice of vocation: for example, that those who show ascendant reactions would be "at a special advantage in salesmanship, executive work, factory management, law, politics, organizing, and kindred occupations"; and (3) to place individuals in positions demanding these qualities. Since the test can be given in a half hour, the incidental information which it might yield about an individual would justify its use.

If *rapport* can be secured by interesting the student in taking a test as a means of self-evaluation and help in solving his own problems, such a test may prove to be of value in work with individuals. Certain "personality" tests may be given to groups of students to detect those who need further study, or they may furnish valuable concrete information to supplement other facts in a case study. They may also be used as a point of contact in interviewing students.

✓ What Interests Does the Student Have? ✓

In elementary school and high school a simple interest inventory or questionnaire, administered under favorable conditions, is a quick way of surveying a student's interests. The Hildreth Personality and Interest Inventory, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, which has both an elementary and a high school form, has been widely used for this purpose.

Examples of Interest Inventories. Of the vocational interest inventories, the Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory, McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois; and the Kuder Preference Record, Science Research Associates, Chi-

chicago, Illinois, have been widely used with high school students. The Cleeton inventory explores interest in nine occupational groups; whereas the Kuder procedure yields a profile of preference for nine fields of interest—mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical.

With college students, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, has been the most widely used for the exploration of vocational interest.

Limitations of Interest Inventories. If the teacher uses these interest inventories, he should be very careful not to confuse interest and ability and not to encourage the student to fix his attention on the particular vocations on which he scored highest. The correspondence between interest and ability is far from perfect, and the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks, for example, fall far short of exploring the world of work: they have keys for only thirty-six occupations for men and seventeen for women, out of a possible 20,000 occupations. The best procedure is to learn as much as possible about a student's interests in an interview in which he thinks over the school subjects, work experiences, hobbies, and leisure activities that have given him most satisfaction. Thus he will review the history of his vocational interests, which may be checked by the results of an interest inventory.

✓ Administration and Scoring of Tests ✓

Good procedure in the administration of tests includes the following steps:

1. See that all supplies are at hand—test papers, manual of directions, extra pencils, and erasers if necessary. Guard against interruptions during the test period.
2. To insure the students' interest and cooperation, tell them the plan of testing and something about the test's value.
3. Maintain an atmosphere that is businesslike and stimulating but not tense.

4. Follow scrupulously the directions provided by the authors of the test.

5. Observe the individuals taking the test to note any failure to follow the directions or any lack of effort that might affect the results.

6. Check the scoring of each test to prevent errors.

7. Report scores in the form most meaningful and useful for guidance.

The report that the guidance specialist makes to the teacher should consist at least of a sheet for the class showing each student's total score and percentile or grade equivalent, and his scores on the subtests arranged in order from the highest to the lowest. Lines may be used to indicate the median and quartile points for the group. At the bottom of the page the test norms derived from a larger number of pupils of the same grade should be given.

The following description of a psychologist at work concretely illustrates good procedure, which a teacher giving a test could easily imitate:

Dr. L—— administered the test with an air of calm assurance, and in a pleasant conversational tone that was reflected in the students' lack of strain or tension. In giving directions she followed the standard instructions, but not mechanically. When the directions were particularly difficult, she stressed key words in the instructions and gave helpful cautions. When a few students, overeager to begin, started to turn the pages too soon, the examiner moved over in their direction. She was constantly alert to students who departed in any way from the instructions. In instances where several students had difficulty in finding their place, Dr. L—— stopped the others and repeated the directions, without embarrassing the confused ones. At another point, when some pupils were about to begin before the group was ready, the examiner cautioned, "Just a minute—I haven't given the signal to begin." During the period she moved around the room quietly and unobtrusively, noting any distraction or lack of effort or concentration. From time to time she gave whatever aids the directions permitted: "Be sure to turn to page nine as soon as you have finished page eight," "Do you have page eleven before you?" Once she had to stop and say, "I'm going to ask, please, that you observe the starting and stopping signals just a little bit

better." One boy repeatedly made a mark on his test paper after the examiner had called "Stop"; each time she saw to it that he erased the last mark. Thus the examiner tried to be sure that each student was putting forth his optimum of effort and was taking the test under standard conditions.

↙ The Interpretation and Use of Tests ↘

To summarize: Teachers should interpret and use test results as follows:

1. They should know which test was used, by whom and under what conditions it was given, and whether the subject was doing his best. An IQ on the Binet test obtained by a skilled examiner who was able to get the full cooperation of the subject, is quite different from a so-called "IQ" obtained from a group intelligence test administered by a inexperienced teacher.

2. They should know the student's background, the opportunities he has had to acquire the kinds of ability measured by the test, and whether he is "test wise," that is, experienced in taking standardized tests.

3. They should know the test—what kinds of abilities it really measures. Study descriptions and criticisms of the test used. The *1940 Mental Measurements Yearbook* by Oscar Buros (Highland Park, New Jersey, Mental Measurements Yearbook) is particularly helpful for this purpose, as are also standard books on testing.

4. They should use test results only in connection with all the other information available about the individual—never base any important decision on the results of a single test.

5. They should interpret the test results to individuals only after ascertaining their readiness for the information. The general practice is not to give written reports of IQ or even of percentile ratings. Even though a parent or student is intellectually able to comprehend such a report, he might not be emotionally ready to accept it. Consequently, he might twist the information to fit his preconceived ideas and believe only what he wants to believe. In a verbal report misconceptions can be more easily corrected.

6. They should adapt the interpretation of test results to the individual's need. For example, a person whose test results are above average but who nevertheless feels discouraged and inferior, may profit by a detailed examination of his test results that will show him just where he stands with reference to others at his age and grade. On the other hand, a person whose test results are low probably needs to be told what he *can* do rather than what he cannot do.

✓ The Limitations of Tests in Counseling ✓

Many of the limitations actually noted in the use of tests are the result of faulty administration and interpretation rather than of defects inherent in the tests themselves. If the teacher-counselor depends on tests as his main source of information about an individual, he may obtain an incomplete or erroneous picture. If he is not familiar with the particular kind of mental ability measured by a given test, he may make faulty generalizations. If he introduces tests into the counseling process prematurely, instead of in response to a need felt by the counselee, he may block his access to valuable information that the counselee could give directly, if encouraged to do so. The difference of opinion on the role of knowledge obtained from tests in the counseling process seems to stem from conflicting estimates of the counselee's ability to appraise his assets and limitations correctly. Although the counselee has within himself important resources for understanding himself, which should be utilized to the full, his judgment is not always infallible. His self-knowledge may be distorted by such factors as his parents' ambitions and expectations of him, his preconceived idea of himself, his inability to think coherently about himself. He frequently feels the need of more objective information and welcomes the additional data that tests give. Both student and teacher-counselor, however, should recognize these limitations, as well as the possibility of errors in administration and scoring, which, though quite unjustifiable, nonetheless actually occur in practice.

The second type of limitation is within the tests themselves. For the most part, they reward a stereotyped kind of answer and discourage the unique, creative response. They do not adequately measure many important kinds of learning: for example, knowledge of significant current problems that may have been studied intensively by a particular class, or ability to think critically, to appreciate, and to apply knowledge gained.

The third type of limitation may be removed by further research on the relationship between the results of a particular test and achievement in a certain course or vocation. In some industries this kind of relationship has been studied with reference to specific jobs. In education, many correlations have been computed between intelligence test scores and teachers' marks, but practically no information is available on the relationship between test scores and future success in various fields.

✓ The Values of Tests in Student Counseling ✓

Despite their limitations, tests have a place in the total study of an individual's potentialities. As his assets and limitations become clearer, his placement in appropriate learning situations can be made with more certainty. Tests decrease guess work in guidance. Study of the detailed responses on the test paper gives a clearer idea of how the individual's mind works in response to the tasks set by the test. When standardized tests are administered individually by a skillful observer, they yield additional insight into the subject's attitudes, emotional stability, and problem-solving methods. If tests have been given as a routine procedure and their results have been recorded on the cumulative record card, the counselor has an initial background valuable to his understanding of the individual.

When an individual is not speaking freely in an interview, a discussion of test results sometimes unlocks his reticence and helps him to think more freely about his personal problems. Such a discussion may serve as a springboard to a more

therapeutic type of relationship. Details from test responses, especially those in personality and interest inventories, suggest possible areas that can be tactfully touched in interviews.

To the individual who needs objective evidence of his abilities or his limitations, test results are more convincing than any general statements made by his friends or his counselor. The tests give the counselee one more bit of evidence that will be useful to him in thinking through his problems or life plan.

✓ Projective Methods in Student Counseling ✓

Because existing tests of personality leave so much to be desired, interest in a new kind of instrument or technic has been keen. Counselors have wanted a technic that would sketch personality structure, that would reveal personality in action, that would describe "the whole child." The nearest approach to reaching these objectives has been made by the group of technics that have been aptly called "projective technics."

As their name implies, these technics induce a person to project his personality in response to an unfamiliar situation for which he has no ready-made, conventional responses. Thus he indirectly discloses his private world of feelings and meanings to the examiner, who records verbatim what he says. Later the examiner studies the records to see what personality pattern is suggested by the subject's responses.

The best-known and most widely used of the projective technics is the Rorschach. The stimuli presented to the subject consist of ten selected ink blots, some colored, the majority black on a white ground. The administration of the technic is disarmingly simple: the examiner asks with respect to each card, "What might this be?" The subject may say, "It's a giraffe sitting down," or he may go on to describe much more that he sees in the ink blot. The examiner records all responses, including the subject's facial expression, bodily movements, evidences of tension, and side remarks. In interpreting the subject's responses, he avoids implying

that any specific responses indicate certain characteristics. Rather, he tries to get a sense of structure and organization by studying the subject's total responses. Although elaborate scoring methods have been developed, the personality picture derived from the ink blots depends a great deal on the clinical insight of the examiner. That is why it is generally agreed that a person should have at least three years of clinical training, and experience in the Rorschach method before he can qualify as a Rorschach expert.

Another of the more widely used projective technics is the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test. This consists of twenty pictures depicting dramatic events. In each picture there is one person with whom the subject can identify himself. The subject is asked to make up a story for which the picture could serve as illustration, telling specifically what has happened, what the persons are thinking and feeling, and what their relations are to one another. Through his comments the subject may reveal fears, conflicts, fantasies, disorganization, or other characteristics.

Other projective technics apply the same principles but employ widely different stimuli: clay, finger paints, and other art materials, nebulous cloud pictures, realistic pictures depicting dramatic events, toy families and furniture, puppet shows, words to which the subject responds by making a simile, and stories. The examiner, whenever possible, records:

1. What the subject does without prompting.
2. What he does with prompting.
3. How he feels about the whole situation or any part of it.
4. The quality of his behavior throughout the period.

In every one of these technics, the subject is free to respond in his own way. In so doing, he reveals unique personality trends, such as introversion, evasiveness, capacity for organizational or related thinking, inner resources for adjustment to the outside world, jealousy or other feelings toward members of his family, emotional involvements, repressions, and conflicts.

In clinics the Rorschach is frequently used to determine

whether the individual is in need of psychiatric help. Sometimes it uncovers more serious conflicts and personality trends than observation of the subject's behavior indicates; sometimes it gives a more hopeful picture than the case history data would suggest.

Although the teacher or teacher-counselor does not have the background and training to use projective technics himself, he is likely to hear more and more about them. If he works with specialists on cases, he should at least have the elementary knowledge of projective technics that has been given here. He will learn more about their interpretation and use from working with clinicians and guidance specialists who include the Rorschach, the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test, and other projective technics in their diagnostic and therapeutic procedures.

The projective technics are still in an experimental stage. Their apparent simplicity sometimes leads to their use by inexperienced persons, whose interpretation of a subject's responses to any of the "unstructured" material may become so far-fetched as to be fantastic. The subjective nature of the interpretation of the subject's responses makes the intuition and clinical psychological background of the examiner a necessity. Despite these limitations, projective technics are a promising new development. They give hope that eventually we shall be able to learn more about the unique, dynamic aspects of individual personality.

XI

THE TECHNIC OF INTERVIEWING

The interview is the backbone of the counseling process. It offers an opportunity for the student to use the resources within himself and those available to the counselor to gain insight and to make sound plans. In many instances a single interview with a student will provide the slight amount of assistance he needs to make a satisfactory adjustment. In other cases a series of thirty or more interviews may be needed as part of a total counseling procedure. Everything that has been said about the counseling process on pages 252 to 259 is pertinent here.

One frequently hears the statement: "The principal talked to him"—but no improvement in behavior resulted. Why? The reason may lie in the quality of the conversation. It is with the quality of these "conversations with a purpose" that this chapter is concerned.

✓ Illustrative Counseling Interviews ✓

The following stenographic reports of interviews, modified to prevent any possibility of identifying the persons, illustrate a few common types of interview that teachers hold with students. These reports furnish a concrete basis for a discussion of interview procedure. Before looking at the comments following each interview the reader should make his own analysis, noting good and poor procedures. Thus he will become more sensitive to the science and art of interviewing.¹

¹ A much more extensive opportunity to study the interviewing process

A "Nuisance" in Class. Bert, age fifteen, in grade 9A, has a Binet IQ of 113. His family's economic status is high, and there is considerable social pressure on him to make a good academic record. His vocational ambition is to become a physician. Bert is reported as constantly annoying teachers with his incessant talking. Typical is the following note from his English teacher: "Bert is a nuisance in my class. Perhaps it would be better for him to drop the course."

The first interview with his teacher-counselor proceeded as follows:

BERT (Hands counselor note from Mr. D——, the principal, telling of his difficulty with his English teacher.)

COUNSELOR: Have a seat, Bert. We haven't had a chance to talk together this term.

B.: No, not since last spring. That was when I came in to show you my grades.

C.: I remember. I've often told other boys about your fine record. I'm sorry to get this note about the difficulty in Miss R——'s room. What happened?

B.: Oh, it was nothing. I wasn't the only one talking. She became angry and sent me to Mr. D——. She didn't send the others.

C.: I wonder why not. (No answer.) Did they stop talking when she told them to?

B.: Yes.

C.: Did you?

B.: No.

C.: How will suspension in this class affect your chances for graduation?

B.: Pretty seriously, I guess.

C.: What would you suggest doing?

B.: Could you see her for me?

C.: I did once before and she said she would not permit further rudeness.

B.: I didn't know she was going to get angry. I didn't mean to offend her.

C.: Could you make her understand that? Suppose you try talking it over with her.

The next day Bert reported to the teacher-counselor that he had apologized to the teacher and that she had permitted him to return to class.

Bert's attitude, however, did not improve. Encouraged for the moment, he lapsed again into the same mental habits that previously had caused his misbehavior. The same complaints were again reported by other teachers.

In the next interview, which was an hour in length, the teacher-counselor encouraged Bert to try to discover the reason why he was unable to conform to the rules of the school. She listened attentively as he tried to explain his behavior to himself. Occasionally she nodded or smiled to show that she understood; now and then she made a remark, such as "And then?" "How did you feel about that?" "Could you tell more about that?" to clarify the situation for Bert and for herself.

He said he felt restless and couldn't keep his mind on the subjects. In reviewing his leisure activities, he noted that he had included very little physical activity. "Perhaps," he said, "I have too much energy bottled up and it spills over in class." The teacher-counselor accepted this explanation and asked if he would like to see what activities were offered in the Y.M.C.A. She arranged to have him meet the Y.M.C.A. secretary, who interested Bert in sports and in becoming a leader of a Boy Scout group. This seemed to have a fine stabilizing effect on him, and no more serious disturbances of classes were reported.

The teacher-counselor used her first two interviews with Bert to good advantage. In the first very short contact she had time to do little more than make a favorable comment on his previous record; give him an opportunity to tell what happened in class, as he viewed it; call his attention to the teacher's side of the question; tie up this immediate problem with his future educational plans; and help him to plan how he could restore the good relationship with the teacher. All of these features were sound, but they were carried out too superficially. Each should have been considered much more deeply and thoroughly. Apparently this superficial type of interview did not get at the roots of the difficulty in Bert's

case; he had gained no insight into the underlying causes of his behavior in class.

In the second interview the teacher-counselor wisely encouraged Bert to try to understand more fully his behavior in classes. He was ready to do this, for he was dissatisfied with the situation and wanted to change for the better. As he talked, it became clearer to him that his outbursts in class might be a way of releasing bottled-up energy. He reasoned that if he had other outlets for his energy, he would have less need for the explosive behavior in class that was making him a nuisance to the teachers. Although the teacher-counselor recognized that there were other possible causes of his behavior, she accepted the boy's explanation and helped him to find wholesome outlets for his energy. This seemed to be a solution for the immediate problem of adjusting to classroom conditions.

Having met this situation satisfactorily, through his own efforts, Bert was ready to think through other less obvious problems. He should, for example, reconsider his vocational choice. In the first interview for this purpose, the teacher-counselor would encourage him to review the history of his vocational interest: how did he come to choose medicine as his vocation, what experiences reinforced his interest in this field, what other interests and abilities were indicated by his school subjects, avocations, and part-time work experience. If he and the teacher-counselor felt the need for more objective information, he could arrange to take tests to give more definite information about his mental ability, achievement, and interests. In an interview, following the testing, they would consider all the evidence they had collected with reference to further education leading to a realistic vocational objective.

During these interviews, the boy might give clues of difficulty in family relations, emotional conflicts, or disturbance about sex matters that the counselor should take time to follow up casually. Thus the interviews would continue as long as the boy felt the need for help in learning how to use his various abilities and energies to better advantage than in the past.

A "Failure" in Math. The teacher-counselor who had Jane Baldwin in his counseling group found on her desk a note from Miss Smith, one of the school's best mathematics teachers.

"I wish that you would investigate the case of Jane Baldwin," she wrote. "The child's work is growing daily more unsatisfactory, and her tests reflect a confused, almost dazed state of mind. She is in an accelerated group, and in her last semester of college prep math."

A note brought to the counselor's office a small, well-groomed junior of sixteen. Dark circles underlined large, serious eyes, and during the entire interview her hands restlessly twisted and untwisted her handkerchief.

COUNSELOR: Come in, Jane, and have a chair. Miss Smith tells me that you've been having difficulty with math, and I thought maybe I could help you get things straightened out. What seems to be the trouble?

JANE (in a low voice): I just can't understand it, Miss M—. All the others in the class get it all right and I try. (Voice rising hysterically.) I really try. But I just can't understand math. I can't.

C.: Well, that's nothing unusual. If you've done your best, there's no disgrace in failing.

J.: But my father— (Weeps silently.)

C.: What about your father, Jane? Does he scold you because you don't do better in math?

J. (indignantly; there is evidently great love and understanding between these two): Oh, no, no! But he's in the Army, and he uses math a lot, and he keeps telling me how important it is, and—and I don't want to let him down.

C.: Yes, math is important in some vocations. What kind of work does your father do?

J.: He's doing special work at the camp. He had a filling station before the war. He's going to send me to college. There wasn't money enough to send Eleanor (an older sister), but he wants me to go. And I keep thinking, "If I should fail!" All the girls I go with are in the accelerated group, and they're smart. I've never failed anything in high school. (Sobs convulsively.) And I keep thinking, "If I should fail!" All night long I think about it—suppose I can't get into college.

C.: Have you thought of any way out?

J.: No, my thoughts go around and around in circles and never lead anywhere.

C.: What do you think of this idea, Jane? Suppose we shift you into an ordinary math group? Those classes do not move so rapidly as the accelerated group, and there would be more chance for you to ask questions.

J. (eagerly): Oh, could you, Miss M——? Could you?

C.: I'm sure we can arrange it. We'll try to, anyway. Stop in to see me before you leave today, and I'll let you know what luck I have had in shifting your classes.

The teacher-counselor selected for Jane a young math teacher with a genuine interest in young people. This teacher agreed to enroll Jane in her class and to ask her only easy questions during her first week in the new group. Miss M—— hoped that experiencing some degree of success would restore the girl's former feeling of self-confidence. The counselor, genuinely concerned over the girl's inability to sleep and her intense anxiety about failure, decided to telephone the child's mother. The mother told of Jane's dogged but futile attempts to master math at home, of her overconscientiousness and her fits of depression.

Two weeks later Jane stopped by the counselor's office.

C.: Jane, I was thinking about you this morning and wondering how you are making out in your new class. How are things going?

J.: Fine! Just fine! They go more slowly in that class, and I really understand it now. I think I'm doing all right.

C.: Well, that's splendid, Jane. Suppose you bring me your report card when you get it, just so that we can check on your standing.

Jane's new math teacher later told the counselor that Jane is "one of the best in the class."

This is far from being an ideal interview, but apparently it gave Jane help she needed in her confused and discouraged state. The teacher-counselor with her knowledge of resources for instruction was able to suggest a plan that would probably not have occurred to Jane. Although Jane presented evidence of being seriously disturbed, the counselor was wise in making an adjustment in the school program before referring the

girl for more expert counseling and psychotherapy. By thus restoring her sense of confidence in herself and preventing the threat of failure, the counselor solved the immediate problem and the girl responded well to the changed conditions.

Continued counseling, however, was needed to pave the way for good adjustment in a carefully selected college or junior college. If reliable intelligence tests showed that Jane was in the lowest quarter in scholastic aptitude, compared with other freshmen, an unsuitable college program would be likely to cause a recurrence of the emotional disturbance Jane experienced in high school when placed in a situation presenting too great difficulty for her.

A Vocational Perplexity. Lenna was a junior who had taken the commercial course for two years and had then changed to the foods major. She went to her faculty adviser to talk about getting summer work experience.

LENNA: May I talk with you a few minutes, Miss T——?

ADVISER: Yes, Lenna. Sit down.

L.: Last year I took the commercial course, but although I worked hard, my marks were so low that, at the end of the second year, I changed to a four-year food trades curriculum. Last summer I did filing. It was easy, but next summer I should like to get a job that has to do with foods.

A.: But, my dear child, you will have had very little work with foods. You are a junior with two years of commercial work.

L.: I have some experience in foods.

A.: Do you do much cooking at home, Lenna?

L.: Yes, I prepare most of the meals. My aunt works and I really do most of it.

A.: Do you ever do any baking?

L.: Yes, cakes and cookies, but no bread and pies.

A.: Maybe you could find work in a small restaurant or tearoom or perhaps in a summer camp. You have had experience in preparing meals and some experience in clerical work.

L.: It's too bad I can't take any work in the serving of food this year.

A.: Restaurants in summer resorts require more help in vacation, but city restaurants do not hire extra help at that time. The

C—— and the D—— are two fine tearooms that usually employ college girls during the year. They often call in June to inquire if we have girls who could step in to help during the summer.

L.: I would love that, Miss T——. I have peeked into the D—— and it's an attractive place.

A.: Would you like to take the names and addresses of the tearooms? Next Saturday morning go in and apply for the position next summer. Tell Mrs. A—— that I sent you.

L.: That seems so soon, Miss T——.

A.: Yes, Lenna, but Mrs. A—— likes to plan far ahead.

L.: I'll go right this Saturday. Thanks so much, Miss T——.

A.: Follow up in the spring. It may take several interviews to get a job. Here is a list of names and addresses.

L.: Thanks. I must carefully list my training and experience so as to make as good an impression as possible, for I just must get into one of those tearooms. Won't Mother be happy! They have such darling little caps and aprons.

A.: You might make a list of possible places and write down just what you can do for them. I don't know about the wages, so you will need to inquire into that.

L.: I am more interested in getting the work than I am in the wages. I can't thank you enough, Miss T——. Good night.

A.: Goodnight, Lenna.

The solution of Lenna's problem seems so obvious that even a very inept counselor should accomplish a successful interview. Yet the only helpful feature in this interview was the bit of definite information about the two tearooms. Lenna seems to have obtained some help from the interview in spite of the adviser. It was Lenna who suggested the most fruitful factors to explore: "I have had some experience in foods," "It's too bad I can't take any work in the serving of food this year," "I must carefully list my training and experience so as to make as good an impression as possible." The last two of these good suggestions the adviser entirely ignored. When Lenna regretted not having courses in the serving of food, which would help her in getting a job as waitress, the adviser should have examined the course offerings to see whether this change in program was possible. If it was not, she should have raised the question with the curriculum committee and the foods department.

Almost at the beginning of the interview there is a note of disparagement—long before the adviser has understood the girl's plan and inclination. From there on the discussion seems mechanical and adviser-centered. The adviser seizes upon a solution and ignores everything else. She does not reinforce the girl's good ideas; she does not supply accurate information about the opportunities, requirements, wages, and conditions of work in the foods field in the vicinity; she does not help Lenna to develop her good ideas, such as making an effective presentation of her qualifications for the job she wants to get; she does not consider the possibility of jobs that would require some background in both commercial and foods work.

The larger problem of whether the foods field is the best for Lenna to enter should have been thoroughly explored in earlier interviews. On the basis of an adequate study of her interests, abilities, and other factors already described (see pages 376–391), the change to the foods trades curriculum should have been made. A teacher in that department might have been given time to collect or make job descriptions of occupations in this field and to build an up-to-date file of local employment opportunities. This information should be available to all the faculty advisers. It would have been still better had the faculty adviser been a teacher in that field.

Transition Troubles. Mary had entered the twelfth grade of a junior college in the fall. In the first quarter of the school year she had been reported to her teacher-counselor because of a defiant attitude toward her teachers, low marks, and disregard of regulations. She was an attractive girl, full of vitality, an only child from a small town, where her parents occupied a prominent position socially and financially. This was her first experience in being away from home.

MARY (Appears at door. Her face is flushed, her dark eyes flashing, her attitude tense): Miss Y——, did you send for me?

COUNSELOR: Why yes, Mary. I like to get acquainted with all the new students, but have been very slow in doing so in your case. That was an attractive party the junior class had last night, wasn't it? You seemed to be having a very good time.

M. (relaxing a bit): Yes, it was fun.

C.: Were any of your friends here from L—— (her home town)?

M.: Yes, three of them.

C.: That was jolly. I suppose most of your high school crowd is away at college.

M.: Yes, that's why I wanted to come. The others in my crowd had all graduated at high school, and I didn't want to take my senior year alone.

C.: Do you like being away at school?

M. (her face falling): No, I don't (in a defiant tone). The girls are a bunch of snobs. And I don't like the teachers, either. They are always nagging at me and give me poor grades. I hate to be criticized.

C.: You hate to be criticized?

M.: Well, at home I always did as well as the rest of the crowd, even though I didn't study.

C.: And here it's not that way?

M.: Yes, and that worries me; I feel that something must be wrong with me.

C.: Not necessarily. The difference may be in the two schools. Only the best students in a number of high schools come here and practically all of them expect to go to college. That wasn't true of your home town high school, was it?

M.: No, only a few went to college and the standards weren't as high as they are here.

C.: So it's a great deal more to your credit to be an outstanding student here where the students are superior and the standards are higher than it would be in a small town high school.

M.: That's true. This is more like college than high school. It's more like the kind of work the other kids are having at college. Really, then, I'm more on a par with them than I thought. I'm having the same kind of experiences they are having.

C.: Your experiences here seem similar to theirs?

M.: Yes. They talk a lot about new friends and sororities, and having to study much harder than they did in high school, and being more on their own. And I just realized that I am having the same experiences, too, but I've not been taking advantage of them.

C.: What experiences haven't you taken advantage of?

M.: Well, some of the girls have invited me to parties and asked me to go to town with them, and share their boxes from home, and I haven't been at all friendly to them.

C.: You haven't met them halfway?

M.: Yes, that's it. Come to think of it, I haven't asked them to do anything with me or shared anything with them. The only person I've been friendly with is Alice, and I knew her before I came here.

C.: You've done some exceptionally good thinking, Mary. You don't need help from me when you can think things through so well. You're ready to be on your own and make the most of your years here. If you do meet any difficulties, such as finding it hard to get down to studying after having got through high school without making much of an effort, come in and see me. Perhaps I can help you with your reading and study habits.

M.: Thanks a lot. I'll be in if I can't make the grade myself.

Mary's approach to the counselor was the opposite of that described for a good counseling relationship. On the surface at least, she had no desire to change her behavior or to take responsibility for her own guidance. She erroneously thought of the counselor in the role of disciplinarian and, knowing her behavior had been unsatisfactory, approached the interview with hostility.

Obviously, the counselor's first move was to try to modify Mary's idea of her role. To do this, she made a simple statement of her real function—to get acquainted with all new students. She began the conversation with a subject with which Mary had pleasant associations. This seemed to be a sound approach, for Mary relaxed a bit and became a little less hostile to the counselor personally. Then she began to think about the school situation and her relationships in it. The counselor accepted her feelings about the girls and by a few simple comments kept encouraging her to think further. When Mary expressed the feeling, so common among students who are not making a good adjustment to a new school or college, that "something must be wrong with me," the counselor stepped into the interview more actively. She made a definite statement based on her experience with many students who had not realized that the college requirements and the superiority of the student body made it necessary for them to work much harder than they had done in high school. Mary quickly accepted this explanation and carried it further in her own thinking.

As Mary had demonstrated very unusual ability to solve her own problems, the counselor encouraged her to take all the responsibility she was able to carry. However, she left the way open for Mary to come back again if she wanted to talk things over further.

Judged by standards of counseling and psychotherapy set for specialists in this field, this interview would seem superficial. Judged by standards set for the teacher-counselor, it should be rated helpful and constructive. The teacher-counselor recognized and used the resources within the girl herself for making a better adjustment in the junior college. If the girl's subsequent behavior indicated the need for more intensive study of any aspect of the situation, the teacher-counselor was ready to see that the services needed were provided.

Even when a short interview such as those reported here is apparently successful, its limitations should be clearly recognized. In the hands of an unskilled counselor, the short contact can accomplish little. There is danger that even a competent interviewer may elicit only superficial responses from the interviewee and as a result gain an inaccurate picture. Moreover, certain important leads cannot be developed adequately.

✧ Situations in Which Interviews Are Useful ✧

A few situations in which the technic of interviewing is appropriate have been described in this and in preceding chapters. These may now be more systematically listed:

1. When the teacher observes behavior which raises questions in his mind and which might be answered in an interview with the student.
2. When the teacher-counselor is ready periodically to consider, in the light of all his knowledge of the student, what the school can do to further his best development.
3. When a student's records show a discrepancy between ability and achievement, or other evidence of failure to realize his potentialities.

4. When some special problem has arisen that requires the cooperative thinking of student and teacher or counselor, as, for example, change in program, unsatisfactory school behavior, failure in one or more subjects, reading difficulty, poor attendance or tardiness, problems of family and boy-girl relations, poor social adjustment, emotional instability.

5. When a student is ready to choose a course of study or make plans for further education.

6. When a student is ready to choose a vocational field most appropriate for him in the light of all the relevant factors.

7. When an applicant is being considered for a school, college, or job.

8. When an applicant has been accepted and the school wants to learn more about the kind of person he is.

9. When a student is entering a new school or college—to help him orient himself and “get off to a good start.”

10. When a student officer or a member of a group needs individual help in playing his role more effectively in the group.

✓ Procedures for the Counseling Interview ✓

No formula, of course, can be given which, if followed, will enable the teacher to do successful interviewing. The interview is far too individual and flexible a process for that. Its course is steered by continuous sensitivity to what the person being interviewed is thinking and feeling.

A few general suggestions, however, should help teachers to improve the quality of their interviews.

1. *Listen.* Almost invariably teachers talk too much in the interview. Being in the habit of teaching, they teach. Instead, they should take the attitude of learners; they should listen intently and learn. Problems are sometimes solved without the interviewer saying a word. Worries are often objectified, relationships clarified, by the student's talking while the teacher listens.

2. *Accept and try to understand.* The teacher should also curb his reformer tendencies and accept the student as he is—his hostility, his unacceptable ways of meeting life's problems, his liabilities as well as his assets. The student wants to be understood—not to be judged, labeled, scolded, or praised. In any interview, the teacher should start where the student is.

3. *Share responsibility.* The interview has aptly been called a "joint quest." It is neither wholly "client-centered" nor "counselor-centered." The student has information and resources that the interviewer does not possess. Similarly, the interviewer has information and resources that the less mature individual lacks. The two pool their resources. In this relationship of mutual trust and confidence, the student is stimulated to use his powers of self-analysis and constructive planning to best advantage. But the creative interviewer does more than this; he goes beyond the limited insights many students are able to achieve alone; he helps them to arrive at a better decision or plan.

4. *Have the necessary information.* In many types of interview progress depends on having the facts with which to think straight. Lacking knowledge of the principles of mental hygiene, educational opportunities, social trends or conditions related to the student's life, the requirements of different vocations, or other necessary information, the teacher-counselor cannot serve as a resource when the student has reached the limits of his own ability to understand and handle the situation.

5. *Have faith.* Faith is a bridge between what the individual now is and what he can become. The interviewer's well-founded faith in the student's ability to make the best of himself leads him on. It helps him to see himself in a new light and to take a more hopeful view of the future.

With these few guiding principles in mind and heart, the interviewer is not likely to go far astray from good interviewing procedure. His success, however, is partially dependent upon his reputation. If students believe he is just, genuinely kind, honest, and straightforward, they will respond accordingly. Usually these qualities are expressed in a frank,

friendly smile and other outward evidences of good humor and good will. If, on the other hand, the interviewer has unfortunately acquired the reputation for wasting the student's time in interviews, giving no constructive help, saying one thing to one student and another thing to another, repeating confidences, or becoming sentimental, students will avoid him whenever possible and, in compulsory interviews, will be as uncommunicative as clams.

✓ The Appraisal of the Counseling Interview ✓

Although these general principles, the interviewer's reputation, and his manner and appearance are of basic importance, a few more details of interviewing procedure may be helpful to the inexperienced teacher. He may be helped by suggestions in the form of a self-rating chart. By studying his interviews, he will gradually become more sensitive to good and poor procedure. On this scale the interviewer will indicate with a cross the point on the line between the two extremes at which he feels his interview falls—good procedure at the left, poor procedure at the right. It will also be helpful for him to check the items which he feels need improvement.

SCALE FOR RATING INTERVIEWS

1. What was the setting for the interview?

Plenty of time scheduled	Insufficient time
Feeling of leisure	People waiting
Privacy	People bustling in and out
Pleasant lighting, and other	Telephone to be answered
provisions for interviewee's	Desk cluttered with work to do
comfort	Glare and other discomforts

2. What was the appearance and manner of the interviewer?

Pleasant voice	Unpleasant voice
Alert and keen	Fatigued, dull
Good health	Poor health

Poise and reasonable self-confidence	Uncertain and insecure
At ease	Ill at ease, bored
Cordial	Indifferent
Genuine interest in interviewee	Patronizing

3. How did the interviewee respond conversationally during the interview?

Talked freely	Tended only to answer questions or refused to answer them
Tried to think through the problem aloud	Uncommunicative
	Unwilling to accept his responsibility in the interview

4. How did interviewer encourage the individual to get an understanding of himself and his relationships?

Successfully	Unsuccessfully
By repeating his most significant remarks	By being completely passive
By following, in a natural way, clues the interviewee gave	By telling interviewee what to do
By asking questions to clarify certain points	By arguing or criticizing
By interpreting interviewee's remarks	By probing
	By interpreting before interviewee was ready for it

5. How did the attitude of interviewee change during the interview?

Interviewee gained new and valuable insights and orientation; felt more hopeful and more confident in his ability to handle the situation; became increasingly independent of the interviewer; had a more friendly relationship	Interviewee became increasingly dependent upon the interviewer; took less responsibility for thinking through the situation himself; less self-confident; more hopeless; more resistant to counselor
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6. What kind of plan resulted from the interview?

A plan worked out primarily by the interviewee—realistic	A "ready-made plan," which the interviewer imposed
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The bias in the mind of the interviewer was communicated by some process of suggestion to the mind of the interviewed, and was there reproduced in response to questioning by the latter.

Rice further states that the bias of the interviewer is

overcome in part by the preparation of specific schedules, and in some cases by specific formulas concerning the manner of putting queries to the interviewed.

Clark,³ also, found differences in information obtained by four interviewers that seemed to be due to the interviewers—to their slightly different definitions of the items being studied and the unavoidable suggestions they gave to the students. Clark concludes that there is a real likelihood that differences in certain kinds of data may be due to the interviewers.

The unreliability of judging, in an interview, a candidate's fitness for a particular position and of judging emotion from facial expression has been demonstrated experimentally. Twelve sales managers, all of whom were experienced in judging character during interviews, disagreed radically in their judgment of fifty-seven candidates. One of the twelve interviewers ranked a particular candidate as best suited to the position, while another ranked him as the worst of the entire fifty-seven. Five of the twelve sales managers rated one candidate twenty or lower; while five of the other interviewers rated the same candidate higher than thirty.⁴

Another source of unreliability arises from the difficulty in recording interviews. To take notes, or not to take notes, during an interview—that is a question frequently asked. On the one hand, writing down parts of a student's conversation sometimes destroys its spontaneity; on the other hand, important details are often lost if they cannot be jotted down at the time when they are mentioned. Dean Gaw of the Ohio State University suggests that saying to a student, "That's an important point. Do you mind if I write it down?" is an

³ E. L. Clark, "Value of Student Interviews," *Journal of Personnel Research*, 5:204-207, September, 1926.

⁴ Harry L. Hollingworth, *Judging Human Character*, pp. 62-66. D. Appleton and Company, Inc., New York, 1922.

excellent way of creating a favorable attitude on the part of the interviewee. Jotting down a catchword now and then on a small piece of paper, and asking permission to write more fully an especially important detail, is in most cases essential in securing a full and accurate report in a fact-finding type of interview. Time should be allowed at the close of an interview to record the findings before the facts have slipped from the interviewer's memory. Whether the interviewer should take notes depends upon the purpose of the interview, the memory of the interviewer, and the attitude of the student who is being interviewed. If the student is disturbed by note-taking, the interviewer should refrain from taking notes even though his report may suffer as a result.

The interview as a fact-finding technic is also limited by the interviewee. His emotional "set" colors the facts he discloses. Self-pity and a desire to appear to as good advantage as possible, to arouse sympathy, or to please the interviewer frequently prevent a person from presenting facts in their true light. A person usually hesitates to report facts that are uncomplimentary to himself. Woodworth says that

except regarding matters that are extremely definite, objective, and impersonal, it seems almost hopeless to secure from the average person any testimony that is not colored by self concern.⁵

Healy, however, in working with juvenile delinquents, has found it possible to win the confidence of a boy and to make him feel that it is for his good to tell what he knows about the problem. If a student feels that the teacher is cooperating with him in the solution of his problem, he will try to contribute as many relevant facts as possible. He may, however, be limited in ability to express himself verbally, to see relationships, to break through emotional barriers to self-insight.

Most of the experimental work on the limitations of the interview relates to the interview as an information-getting technic. The human factor, however, would seem to be still more important when the interview is used as a diagnostic or

⁵ Robert S. Woodworth, "Psychological Experience with the Interview," *Journal of Personnel Research*, 4:165, August-September, 1925.

therapeutic instrument. Success in recognizing conscious or unconscious distortion of facts and the individual's need for doing so depends upon the psychological acuity of the interviewer.

✓ The Values of the Counseling Interview ✓

Nevertheless, the diagnostic and therapeutic values of the interview are great. No other technic creates so favorable a relationship for personal growth. No other technic contributes so much to the counseling process. Without the interview it is difficult to see how an individual might be guided so effectively in self-discovery and self-realization.

XII

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORDS

The name *developmental records* is here substituted for the more usual term *cumulative records* because it directs attention to the use of the records as a means of furthering the student's best development. Any record system should be judged primarily by its efficiency in accomplishing this purpose.

More specifically, the principles that determine the soundness of a record system may be stated as follows:

1. The record is always a means to an end—that of understanding the individual in order to help him understand himself.

2. The record should show past development, present status, and goals and purposes for the future.

3. The record should include information on major aspects of the individual's development—physical, intellectual, social, and emotional.

4. The record should be in a form useful for counseling.

5. When time is limited, as it invariably is, records should not be kept at the expense of more important values; there should be a nice balance between the amount of time spent on keeping records and the amount of time spent in using the information on them.

6. The ideal record is unified. It is more than a collection of unrelated bits of information. From it the counselor and student can see personality patterns and trends.

7. Provision should be made for continuity of records. If this is done, the understanding of a student will grow as he progresses from one educational level to another.

✓ Situations in Which Records Are Needed ✓

The developmental record form should grow directly out of needs and actually be used to meet them. The needs for developmental records may be summarized as follows:

1. Records are needed when a periodic, systematic appraisal is made of each child for the purpose of seeing trends in his physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development. After recognizing these trends and needs for guidance, the school can try to provide the experiences and services each child should have. The appraisal is best made in a case conference, but the basic information for the appraisal should be available on the record.

2. Records are needed when parents want to confer about their child's progress. The same kind of information would be necessary here as in the periodic appraisal by teachers and guidance specialists.

3. Records are needed when instruction is to be individualized. For example, knowledge of a child's experience and needs makes it possible for the classroom teacher or club sponsor to help him contribute most to the group; to develop his special interests and abilities; to meet his needs for approval, recognition, security, remedial instruction, advanced projects, "research," or creative work—all in the course of the regular class period.

4. Records are needed when the child has to make an important choice or decision, as, for example,

- a. Choice of course and extraclass activities.
- b. Change of course.
- c. Decision to do part-time work.
- d. Choice of vocational field.
- e. Decision on whether to leave school.
- f. Some other crisis in his life.

5. Records are needed when a problem of adjustment has arisen, such as

- a. A behavior or discipline problem.
- b. A problem of social adjustment.

- c. A problem of failure in school work.
- d. A problem of boy-girl relations.
- e. A problem of adjustment to the family.

6. Records are needed when other institutions and employers request information about high school students; also when reports on pupil personnel have to be made for city or state departments of education.

7. Records are needed when changes in the curriculum and in school policy are contemplated. Too seldom are personnel records consulted for this purpose.

Although the main use of students' developmental records is in the guidance of individual students, the study of the group through statistical summaries, such as age-grade tables, distribution of scores on standardized tests, summaries of attendance, and number and kinds of physical impairments should not be neglected by the administrator. These statistical summaries of personnel data provide a background against which the information about an individual student becomes more meaningful. For example, an individual IQ of 100 does not have the same meaning in a school where the average is 125 as it does in a school where the average is 90. These summaries suggest more questions than they answer: Why is there such a high percentage of absence among the college preparatory group? What are the characteristics of the students who are frequently absent? What is the intelligence and achievement of students who drop out of school? Why are the scores on comparable reading tests relatively lower each succeeding school year? Why is such a small percentage of remediable physical impairments uncorrected? Questions like these lead to important changes in policy and curriculum which, in turn, affect individual guidance.

The case conference is one of the most effective ways of using student personnel records, especially when case conferences are systematically held for every student in the school. This plan has been followed successfully for years in the Nyack, New York, elementary and high schools:¹

¹ Warren K. Findley, "Description of Two Unique Ways in Which Cumulative Records Are Used," *Handbook of Cumulative Records*, Bulletin 1944, No. 5, pp. 82-86. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1945.

In the elementary school the conferences are held before school begins, from 8:00 to 8:45. In the high school they are held the last period of the day from 3:00 to 3:45. Pupils of teachers attending the case conference may go home, take subjects taught by other teachers, or have remedial work or interviews with individual teachers.

The conference is attended by the principal, counselor, part-time school psychologist, reading specialist, nurse, and teachers of special subjects. In the elementary school the two teachers who share the responsibility for teaching the basic skills to their two groups take responsibility for collecting information about the several pupils who are to be discussed at the case conference on a given day. In the high school the homeroom teachers take this responsibility. They summarize and present the data that have accumulated in each pupil's record and collect additional information that they feel is necessary. Others present add their observations and interpretation. Together they make a recommendation, which is carried out by the "basic" teacher or homeroom teacher, or by some other person to whom the responsibility has been delegated. During the year every pupil will be discussed in case conference at least once.

✓ The Content of the Developmental Record ✓

For most of these purposes information about the child's past and present, and his goals or purposes for the future are needed. Accordingly, the developmental record should include:

1. Past experiences that are likely to influence his present and future progress, such as
 - a. Serious illness or accident, the effects of which persist; physical impairments.
 - b. Achievement and ability, as represented by teachers' marks and results of standardized tests.
 - c. Personality trends as rated by teachers and others who have had sufficient basis for observation.
 - d. Attendance ratio of days absent to total school days.

- e.* Extraclass and work experiences and the satisfaction or dissatisfaction attached to each.
 - f.* Some facts about family backgrounds—parents' birth-place, present residence, occupation, schooling, and marital status.
2. Present status in the items mentioned in (1).
 3. Future purposes and plans. As present behavior is influenced by one's goals and purposes, it is important to know these and how they are changing and developing. This includes not only long-term educational and vocational plans but also something of the pupil's philosophy of life.
 4. Follow-up after pupil has left school. This information is especially valuable for the guidance of pupils still in school and for formulating policies and making changes in the curriculum.

This analysis comes out with essentially the same items as are provided for on the American Council of Education Cumulative record card. The question is: Is the information in the most functional form—most easily recorded and used by those persons who need the information for various persons?

✓ Why Don't Teachers Use Cumulative Records? ✓

The failure of teachers to use the present type of cumulative record card more widely and effectively may be traced to a number of reasons. First, they have not shared in the planning of the record; it has been superimposed on them. When teachers have worked together in determining the items to be included and the form in which they are to be recorded, they are much more likely to make good use of records. If they have not been convinced of the value of records, they will not use them in group work or counseling.

Second, the interpretation and use of the cumulative record require considerable time and skill. Teachers in one school complained of spending an hour getting information from a single record, of not knowing what to look for, and of not being able to interpret the items. They suggested that the

guidance department provide teachers with a digest of the information about their pupils.

Third, records are often not conveniently located for the teachers to use. If the teacher-counselor or homeroom teacher has a room of his own, the records for his counselees might well be kept there in a locked file. If he has no assigned room, the records may be kept in a central office with interviewing rooms, desks, and chairs for convenient use of the records. In some colleges a messenger service makes it possible for a counselor to have any student's record brought to him.

Fourth, the clerical work required of teachers gives rise to dissatisfaction with records; it usurps time that teachers should spend on the creative use of records. There is an important difference, however, between spending time on records as a clerical task and spending time studying the records and writing a descriptive summary of the kind of person a student is and can become.

Comprehensive developmental records may actually save the teacher's time. He is frequently asked to fill in separate blanks concerning a student's special disability and what has been done about it, disciplinary measures and how he has responded to them, and his attitudes toward work, toward classmates, and toward teacher. This information, necessary to the administrator or guidance specialist in dealing with special problems, should be available on the student's developmental record. Moreover, it is much more likely to be accurate if it is obtained before a crisis or emotional disturbance has arisen to distort the student's, parent's, and teacher's perspective.

Fifth, the teachers do not know how to interpret the records available. They need practice in studying, as a group, the same record and learning to extract the most significant information from it.

Sixth, the records do not include enough significant information about the causes of behavior and are therefore not particularly helpful in the guidance of students.

Seventh, few teachers have had help in using records in parent conferences. Teachers who have learned to base successful conferences on records have been enthusiastic.

✓ What to Look for in the School Records ✓

There is an art in reading records. Granted the data are accurately and fully recorded, the value of the records depends largely on how skillfully the information is abstracted and synthesized. The teacher should look for relationships, discrepancies, trends, sudden or marked changes in health, achievement, social status, emotional behavior. From the academic record alone, he can see in which subjects the student is doing his best and his poorest work. He can note discrepancies among test results and between test results and teachers' marks. By charting the facts about health, school achievement, family conditions, attendance, extraclass activities, and remunerative work for a given year, the teacher frequently finds explanations of behavior that had previously seemed incomprehensible. A study of even the minimum academic records yields a tentative impression of the student, which the teacher can enlarge and clarify through questionnaires, observation, interviews, testing, and home visits.

From a questionnaire (see Appendix A) filled out with the interest and cooperation of the students, the teacher may learn more about the student's use of English, ability to write correctly and effectively, spelling ability, vocabulary. His attitude toward school in general and certain subjects in particular, toward fellow students, teachers, and himself, and the amount of insight into his own problems may be suggested in a questionnaire and later confirmed by observation and interview.

Teachers have found home visits one of the most rewarding sources of understanding of their students. The physical conditions in the home, the social and moral influences of the neighborhood, parent-child relations, facilitation or interference with study and reading are learned from home visits. If this kind of detailed information on home visits is filed in the student's record folder, the teacher has only to read and interpret and incorporate it into his enlarging picture of the student.

The most common ways in which teachers go wrong in interpreting records are (1) in making too sweeping generalizations and in drawing inferences not warranted by the data on the records, in other words, implying too much from the records; (2) in failing to note important relationships; (3) in being influenced by their own prejudices or by previous impression of the individual, and (4) in giving too much weight and authority to test results. Too seldom are records used to raise questions. Too seldom do teachers make the distinction between what the record *shows* and what it *suggests*.

Persons using records would seldom go wrong if they kept three things in mind:

1. That the student is growing and changing. What was true of him last year is not necessarily true this year.
2. That the record represents only a small sampling of his behavior. There is much that is unknown about him.
3. That the record often reflects the bias of the person recording. It may tell more about the person who made the record than it does about the student.

✓ Protecting Students from Their Records ✓

If records are misinterpreted and misused, they are a menace to the student. For example, two students were refused admission to the college of their choice largely because the admissions officer generalized from an unfavorable anecdotal record that had been included on the record sent to the college. When in doubt, the counselor should not put anything on the developmental record that might prejudice any person who has access to it. If he has confidential material, he may put it in a separate file or indicate on the developmental record where additional information may be obtained on request. Then he can use his judgment as to how much to tell a given person. In some instances, he will merely make recommendations instead of giving the basis for the recommendations.

✓ Various Forms of the Developmental Record ✓

Inexperienced teacher-counselors may wish to experiment at first by keeping a manila folder for each of their students. Into this folder they put test records, marks in each subject in tabular form, dated anecdotal records and reports of interviews, the physician's summary of the student's health, and other data. They arrange this in orderly sequence in the folder and once or twice a semester study and summarize it. Their summary may take the form of the chart below.

SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENT

DATE ON WHICH SUM- MARY IS MADE	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS AND RECOMMENDATIONS			
	<i>Physical Development</i>	<i>Intellectual Development</i>	<i>Social Development</i>	<i>Emotional Development</i>

Main trends in each phase of development and recommendations are summarized each semester. The recommendations may be underlined to make them stand out. Thus the developmental picture of each student grows and changes year after year. If the person using the record wants more detail on any point, he may turn back to study the source material in the folder. Some of the detailed observations on which the summary is based must be discarded from time to time, so that the folder will not become too bulky.

After a year or two of experimentation, the information that is most useful becomes evident and may be incorporated into a record form. The American Council Cumulative Record² may seem to the teachers to have all the items they need in a more convenient form than any they could devise.

They may, however, want a personnel record that bears a still closer relationship to the kinds of guidance they actually have to do. The form on pages 424-428, which seems very elaborate, is actually a simpler and more functional form than a compact cumulative record card. It would include one card for identifying data and intellectual development (Developmental Record I), one card for physical, social, and emotional development (Record II), and one card on which the older student himself could record his goals and purposes, his educational and vocational plans (Record III). The same general form would be used for high school and for college.

The three 8½" by 11" cards are kept in a folder or envelope, in which are accumulated details of observation, interviews, records of pupils' work, etc., from which the summaries are made. The quantitative data, such as school marks and test results, are recorded directly on the cards. The results of the health examination should be summarized on the card when the doctor makes the examination. The most important trends in the social and emotional development of each pupil should be similarly summarized. The pupil records his goals, purposes, and plans year by year in summarized form. At the end of each year the person who knows the pupil best should try to present an integrated picture of the individual: assets to be further developed, weaknesses that may be overcome, the direction in which he is moving, and recommendations as to the kind of experiences that should be provided for him. It is this picture that would be most helpful if passed on to the next higher institution. An extra copy could be easily made and sent from elementary to high school or from high school to college or other kind of school.

The records for high school and college years would follow a similar pattern, including more detail on work experience,

² *American Council Cumulative Record*. The American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

*Teachers' Observations of Intellectual Development
and Factors Interfering with It*

GRADE	
I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX

Summary of Intellectual Development

DATE	TRENDS, DISCREPANCIES, AND INTERPRETATION	NAME OF PERSON MAKING SUMMARY

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD II

DATE	HEALTH SUMMARY OF DOCTOR'S OR NURSE'S RECOMMENDATIONS	NAME OF DOCTOR OR NURSE

GRADE	DATE	TEACHER'S OBSERVATIONS AND ACTION WITH REFERENCE TO DOCTOR'S RECOMMENDATION	NAME OF TEACHER
I			
II			
III			
IV			
V			
VI			
VII			
VIII			
IX			

GRADE	SUMMARY OF INTERESTS, SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT, AND PERSONALITY TRENDS AS INDICATED BY STUDENTS' INVENTORIES AND COMPOSITIONS, TEACHERS' OBSERVATION, AND EXPERIENCES REPORTED. RECOMMENDATIONS
I	
II	
III	
IV	
V	
VI	
VII	
VIII	
IX	

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD III

DATE	GOALS AND PURPOSES AS SUGGESTED OR EXPRESSED	VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL PLANS

leisure-time activities, educational and vocational plans, and follow-up after leaving school or college. The actual record used in each school should be evolved cooperatively by all the persons concerned. After planning the form which seems to meet their needs best, they may discover that it is so similar to one of the forms on the market that they can purchase it rather than print it themselves.

If this combination of factual detail and summary of the most significant trends and recommendations is incorporated as part of the cumulative record, the teacher or counselor will be able to get the information he needs quickly. He need not puzzle over the details unless he wants to clarify or verify some particular point. But the factual details will be there if they are needed for any of the purposes already outlined.

Two problems suggest themselves immediately in the carrying out of this proposal:

1. Who will make the summaries? Ideally they should be made as the culmination of a case conference in which each pupil's record is discussed each year by the persons who have been in contact with him. Otherwise, the summary should be made by the person serving as the pupil's counselor. These counselors will need time and instruction in order to do this adequately.

2. Will not this proposal make a very bulky record? Yes. But if records are to be kept at all, they should be effective enough so that they will be used. It is still more extravagant to spend time and money recording data on record cards that are little used for the good of the student and the improvement of the curriculum.

✓ Criteria for Student Personnel Records ✓

There comes a time when every school should appraise its student personnel records. The following are some simple, fundamental criteria for evaluating the school records.

1. *Is the school record card used in the guidance of students?* In some schools records are kept at considerable cost but seldom used in the discovery or the treatment of prob-

lems or in helping all the students to attain their fullest development.

2. *Is the record easily read?* Records which are complicated and crowded are discouraging to keep and to interpret.

3. *Does the record show causes and trends?* Single scores on tests, and information concerning social activities, conduct, and other activities for a single year are not nearly so significant as a panorama of repeated tests and observations that show trends; and descriptions that indicate causes.

4. *Do the records include objective, accurate, and concrete measures?* Standardized tests furnish accurate information about certain kinds of ability and achievement. The "incomparability" of teachers' marks is a handicap to a measure which in some ways might be superior to standardized tests.

5. *Do the records show interrelations between background, interests, and abilities?* The relationship between intelligence, academic achievement, recreational and vocational interests, home background, and other factors can be seen much more clearly when this information is periodically synthesized in chart or descriptive form.

6. *Can the record be reproduced quickly and cheaply?* When all the information about an individual is collected on a single card, it is necessary that duplicates of this card be available to the various persons who are concerned in the guidance of students. Copying records is tedious and time-consuming. Photostating is not too costly to be used much more widely than it is at present. Blueprints are cheaper but cannot be made of a record written on both sides. In a small institution, a single record may be made accessible to all the officers of the school who work with individual students. In a large institution, duplicate records are essential in order to prevent delay and waste of time in obtaining the information.

In conclusion, it should be re-emphasized that the teacher should not feel responsible for securing items of information in all the areas included in a complete case study. An attempt on the part of a teacher to obtain intimate details about the ancestors, parent relationships, home conditions, or the early infancy of the child might be resented, in many

communities, as an intrusion upon privacy and as unjustifiable curiosity. It is important, however, for the teacher to be cognizant and make note of the kinds of data that may prove to be significant.

✓ Conclusion ✓

Developmental records grow as the understanding of each student grows. This understanding of his potential and functioning mental abilities, of his achievement and satisfaction in different fields, of his probable ability to learn new things, of his health and physical fitness, and of his ability to live successfully with himself and others is the keystone of guidance. Without this knowledge, it is impossible for the student to choose the kind of education that will be most effective in preparing him for his role as worker and citizen.

The developmental record may take a number of forms. The best is a combination of facts and descriptions, of details and summary, of quantitative and qualitative information. This combination enables the teacher to obtain the main developmental trends quickly and to find supporting details, if he needs them.

If the student is to grow in his ability to appraise himself, he should have practice in the process of appraisal. Some of the most valuable information in the record folder will be supplied by the student through questionnaires, autobiographies, and samples or records of his work. In conference with his counselor, he may learn to interpret test results and to study his record objectively with the questions in mind: What does the record tell me about what I can do best and what I can become? What are my good points and my limitations? What conditions are interfering with the realization of my best self? On the positive abilities indicated by the developmental record, he will build his educational and vocational plans.

XIII

THE CASE STUDY

*This method . . . is the most comprehensive of all, and lies closest to the initial starting point of common sense. It provides a framework within which the psychologist can place all his observations gathered by other methods; it is his final affirmation of the individuality and uniqueness of every personality. It is a completely synthetic method, the only one that is spacious enough to embrace all assembled facts. Unskillfully used, it becomes a meaningless chronology, or a confusion of fact and fiction, or guesswork and misinterpretation. Properly used, it is the most revealing method of all.*¹

GORDON ALLPORT

The developmental record is an abbreviated case study kept for all students. The case study is a more comprehensive, unified study of individuals who present baffling complexity of behavior. Both attempt to interpret and synthesize the facts and impressions collected about individuals. By making a few intensive case studies the teacher gains a better understanding of all students and of the complexity of factors that may influence an individual's behavior. He also understands better the significance of the case studies made by specialists with whom he works.

The *case history* is a comprehensive factual account of the individual's development. The *case study*, as its name im-

¹ Gordon Allport, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, p. 390. Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1938.

plies, includes interpretation and integration of the case history data and recommendations based on this study. It is much easier to write a case history than to make a case study. In making case studies teachers should have the opportunity of working closely with trained case workers. Thus they will avoid the grave danger of trying to use clinical methods for which they do not have sufficient background. Making a case study is more like painting a picture than like putting together a jigsaw puzzle.

The counselor often has to decide which students he can help most with the time and facilities available. The following factors are helpful in deciding whether circumstances are favorable for the working out of a solution:

1. The age of the individual.
2. The duration of the difficulty—how far back does it go?
3. The extent to which physical factors in the situation can be changed.
4. The extent to which factors in the home, neighborhood, and school that are causing the difficulty are modifiable.
5. The insight the person brings to his problem.
6. The cooperation that can be secured from parents, teachers, and other people.

✓ An Illustration of an Actual Case Study ✓

The case study usually begins with the statement of a problem—the individual does not see his way clear to realizing his best potentialities. This statement may be made on the basis of the teacher-counselor's observation; or by another teacher, member of the family, or other person by whom the case is referred; or by the student himself, if he comes voluntarily to the counselor. In the first interview the needs of the individual, the nature of the problem, and his expectations of the counseling process should become clearer. The counselor listens most of the time but may explain the kind of counseling service he can offer. This first interview is followed by others and by testing periods, if the need for tests

becomes evident. Home visits and a case conference may also be included in the course of making the case study. A detailed record is made of each contact and is fastened in the case study folder in chronological sequence. When the counselor feels the need for a summary, he synthesizes the information collected up to that point under the following headings:

1. Age, sex, grade in school, race or nationality.
2. First impression of the individual: personal appearance, size, attitude, dress, manner.
3. Problem as stated by the individual or by person referring him for a case study.
4. Contacts with individual or with persons related to him: interviews, testing periods, opportunities for observation in natural situations.
5. Summary of test results, physical examination, and reports from other agencies.
6. Interpretation and synthesis: most significant attitudes, behavior, symptoms and the meaning of these to the individual; important causative factors and environmental conditions contributing to the kind of development described.
7. Plans for the future: reasons for and evaluation of them.

The Case of a Tenth Grade High School Pupil. Statement of the problem: Helen was referred by her older sister, Rose, who had formerly been in the teacher-counselor's class. Rose feared that Helen might be affected by the emotional situation in the home. She is also worried because Helen has emotional outbursts when she can't have her own way. Rose said that Helen "goes all to pieces when she meets a difficult situation."

First two interviews with Helen's sister: Rose gave details of the family background in this interview. Being a public health nurse, she gave the information for a fairly complete social history better than the teacher-counselor could have obtained it by questioning. The father's parents were born in Russia and lived there until he brought them to this

country when they were "quite old." They were supported by their children until they died at about seventy years of age. There were eleven children, of whom the father was the third. They were generous and devoted to each other.

Helen's father came to America when he was about twenty-three. He boarded with Helen's mother's family and worked in their bakery shop. Seven years later when he was thirty, he married Helen's mother, having "waited for her for six years." He helped all of his brothers and sisters to come to America. Rose described her father as having a combination of admirable qualities. His wife resented his devotion to his relatives and his generosity to other people. One day when he was fifty-five years old, his coat caught in the machinery of his factory and he was drawn into the machine and killed. Rose said the family think he might have committed suicide. He was found, after a long search, by the oldest son and Rose.

There was much intermarriage in the father's family, several marrying first cousins. Rose said, "A second cousin has been ill enough to be confined in a mental hospital for a short time and one of the father's nieces and one of his sisters have had occasional mental depressions but not severe enough to be confined to a hospital."

Helen's maternal grandmother was born in Russia and was left "on her own" at eight years of age. She later divorced her first husband and married again. About sixteen years after her marriage she came to America alone and started a bakery. A year later she sent for her husband and the four children—two of her own and two stepchildren. She was a small, determined person with a tremendous amount of energy. Rose said, "She was suspicious of everyone—nobody was going to put anything over on her." The grandmother was the cleverest of the entire family. Her oldest brother is a physician and did not marry until he was forty years old. Rose said her family does not see much of him.

The grandfather was very religious and spent most of his time reading. He could not make money and would take money out of the family savings to give to poor and needy people. Rose's mother used to pray as a young girl, "Oh God, don't let me marry a man like my father."

After the death of her husband the mother went to visit one of her brothers-in-law to see about going into business. She decided to return to her previous home and since then has been running a small store.

Rose said people seldom came to see them. Her father found his recreation everywhere: in a discussion of politics or religion, a festival, a party. The mother and father often quarreled. Terrible scenes occurred. Rose said, "My father threatened to shoot himself. We children stood around frightened, horrified, weeping. He told me once that he tried to commit suicide by drowning." After his death a will was found, which had been made a few days before his accident.

There are seven children in the family, of whom Rose is the third, and Helen the seventh. They are, in order of age, first Annie, the eldest, who is married, has two little girls, and runs a shop successfully. Annie is very pretty and is very kind to Helen. John is one year younger than Annie and not very bright. He, too, is married and has two children. When he was twenty-four years old, he was sent to a state hospital and diagnosed as a manic-depressive case. He was there only a few months and has had no recurrence of the illness. Rose, the third child, is married to a statistician who came of a poor family and obtained a Ph.D. from a well-known university. She is not happily married and talked of leaving her husband.

Polly, the fourth child, was ill frequently in childhood, very anxious to do good work in school, easily excited. She became ill soon after her father's death and was diagnosed as a manic-depressive. She was treated in a hospital at that time and has had two other similar periods of illness requiring hospitalization. The social worker at the hospital continues to visit her. She appears to be quite well now and keeps house for the family. She had hoped to teach home economics, but is satisfied to remain at home and cook for the family. She is fond of Helen and does many things for her. However, she fights with her over home duties.

The youngest brother, Stephen, was well liked as a youngster. "He has always been my favorite," Rose said. He did

not complete high school because the work did not appeal to him. He has been working as a salesman and recently married a cousin. He poses as one of the "intelligensia," has long, wavy hair, and talks about art and economics.

The sixth child, Lilly, was a happy, pretty child and did fairly well in school. During the past four years her hearing has become progressively worse. She is at present working as a cashier and bookkeeper in a restaurant. She is not interested in learning to do any other kind of work because she counts on marriage to give her leisure and satisfactions.

Helen is the youngest in the family and was a healthy baby, causing no trouble until she was three months old. Then she became a feeding problem. Her first tooth appeared at six months, and she was weaned at this time and bottle fed until about one and a half years. When she was nine months old, if the children said "one and one" to her she said "two"; if they said "two and one," she said "three." She walked and used two or three words at one year. Until the age of eight she had occasional enuresis. At fifteen months she had measles, at four years whooping cough, and at eight years diphtheria. She entered kindergarten at the age of five but cried and was so upset that her mother allowed her to stay home that year.

In these interviews Rose seemed very objective in telling about her mother and less so in giving the details of her father's history. She tended to paint a glowing picture of him and tended to justify her father and blame her mother for their difficulties. She was conscious of this tendency. She gave the facts about her brothers and sisters without any hesitancy, but, when she came to her own position in the family, she said in a low voice, "I don't want to talk about myself." She twisted her wedding ring and took it off and on constantly during the interview. She apologized for taking so much time.

First interview with Helen: The conversation began with Helen telling about her interests and recreation. She said she has always liked to play with boys and girls. She enjoyed roller-skating on the street with them. However, she no longer does that because she says the old ladies on the street

call her a "tomboy." She says that now when the boys say "Hello" to her on the street, she doesn't stop to talk with them, but she does when she meets them in school. Her mother encourages her to be friendly with the boys, but she does not allow her to go to the movies with them alone. She has been glad to have her go to evening parties and to have one of the boys escort her home. She enjoys reading and likes to study. If she has time, she enjoys going for a walk with her girl friends. She loves to dance and enjoys especially the evenings when she and her friends gather in someone's house to dance to the victrola. She likes to help her mother in the store but is rather irritated with the women who are not interested in her opinion because they think she is just a child.

Last summer her sister Annie came from her home in North Carolina to visit and took her back with her to enter a Y.W.C.A. camp there for the entire summer. Helen liked camp immensely and learned to live with girls. She said, "At camp you really get to know them. My girl friend here—I like and we have good times together, but I don't see her when she gets up in the morning. I don't know her as you get to know persons at camp." She wasn't a bit homesick at camp, nor when she visited her sister three years before. "I am the only one of the children whom my mother has let go away from home. I guess she decided to try a different method on me." Helen liked all of the camp activities and hopes she can go back there again. She has a medal that she won at school for participation in athletics. She would like to take dancing lessons and is hoping that her mother will allow her to. She likes tennis, social dancing, and hiking or strolling. She has spent a great deal of her time in social groups.

Helen says she has always been interested in people. On the subway she studies them and wonders what makes them the way they are. She gave a speech in school last year, stating her intention to become a psychologist.

Helen gave the impression of being a happy young girl. She is pretty, well built; she speaks well and has a very pleasing manner and a great deal of poise. When speaking with

adults she does not show any evidence of shyness and yet is rather respectful as well as enthusiastic. Although she is obviously ambitious, she is not forward and does not attempt to be the center of the stage. She did not show any evidence of strain or tension in the interview.

Second interview with Helen: In response to a question about her early years, Helen told about a number of her childhood experiences. In the first grade she had as a teacher an old lady of whom she was afraid. With the exception of her second-grade teacher, whom she disliked heartily, she liked all of her teachers. She skipped the 4B grade and was in a rapid advanced class that covered the 7A-7B and 8A in one year. She says that English is her favorite subject. She would like to excel in English and is willing to work hard in order to obtain high standing. She says she is not like some girls who can go to class without having prepared their lessons. She does not feel comfortable unless she has done the best she can on her home work.

As a young child, she was afraid of the dark and is still a little afraid. But she does not mind staying alone at home now when her family are out. When she was about eight and still wetting the bed, she said she realized that she was getting too old for that behavior and stopped it herself. She has always been a feeding problem and has been underweight. Members of her family have tried unsuccessfully to make her eat. "They tried to make me eat," she said, "but it didn't do them any good. When mother found that method did not work, she let me alone and then, when it doesn't matter to anyone whether you eat or not, it's up to you and you eat."

Speaking of her mother letting her stay home from kindergarten when she cried, she said, "I think I was spoiled then. Even now I am spoiled. My sister keeps telling me I am spoiled. I know that my mother gives in to me. If I can't get anything, I cry so I will get what I want. So I sometimes still cry to get what I want even though I know I'm too old to act that way now."

In speaking of Polly, Helen says she thinks her mother gives in to her because she has been ill. In her opinion Polly has always been the mother's favorite child. Helen

fighths with Polly over the household duties. She said that "when she is good, she helps Polly with the dishes after supper." At this point the worker explained the need for sympathy and a serene emotional atmosphere for Polly. Helen suggested that it would help the home situation if she and Polly decided on specific tasks for which Helen would be responsible and a definite time when she could do them.

Helen described her present home life as follows: She gets her own breakfast in the morning and leaves home before either her mother or sister are up. She returns from school, intending to study, and finds that Polly has planned housework for her to do. This generally causes an argument. She studies before and after dinner until 8:30. She does not have time for recreation during the week but waits until Saturday and Sunday. Her mother has very little time for recreation because the store is kept open until nine o'clock every night. Occasionally she goes to the movies.

Reports from other teachers: Her marks for the freshman year were as follows (70 per cent is the passing mark):

	<i>First Semester</i> <i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Second Semester</i> <i>Per Cent</i>
French	75	75
English	79	80
Social Science	95	95
Algebra	80	
Biology	86	80

The academic standing of this school is good but not exceptionally high. Her favorite teacher, the English teacher, said, "Helen is making grades of 85 to 90 in English this semester. She is alert, interested in class and very enthusiastic. She does outside reading in addition to the requirements. At present she is making an English notebook for which she gets no credit. She is the first in the class to take up suggestions for extra work and does it beautifully. She seems more mature than her classmates. She has many friends, both boys and girls, and knows practically everyone in her class. She doesn't seem to be working under strain, although she is very ambitious. She has a charming personality and a great deal of poise."

Helen works every afternoon in the attendance office of the school. For this service she received a "blue merit," which has no value as school credit but is highly prized by the pupils. She says she likes to stay after school and help the teachers.

Home visit: At the cordial invitation of both Helen and Rose, the teacher-counselor visited the home and had dinner with the family. The four rooms were scantily but substantially furnished, suggesting better times. For example, a large silver tray and tea service were on top of the icebox in the kitchen. While the girls prepared dinner the mother poured out her version of the case history, which agreed essentially with Rose's report. She seemed glad of a chance to tell her troubles. The young people were cooperative and seemed kind and considerate of one another. Stephen, who had stopped unexpectedly for supper, remarked that the family must be on their good behavior; that it must be the good influence of the visitor, for he had never known his family to be so genial. During the conversation, the teacher-counselor thought that the mother began to see a relationship between her irritation with her husband and her earlier dislike of similar behavior in her father. She also saw more clearly Helen's need to be left alone more and encouraged to work out her problems independently. In talking to Polly, the teacher-counselor gave her the feeling that she was doing important work and was of real worth to the family. Thus, casually, as each member of the family indicated readiness for help, the teacher-counselor offered suggestions for their consideration when they seemed to have reached the limit of their own resources.

Helen's visit to the nursery school: At the teacher-counselor's suggestion, Helen visited a near-by nursery school and observed a child being tested. Afterward she learned about the various types of work psychologists do and the value of having experience with children before training as a psychologist.

Psychological tests: It was possible for the teacher-counselor to obtain the service of a psychologist in giving several tests. The results are noted below. Helen was consistently poor in

	Score	Mental Age	<i>IQ</i> Equivalent
Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination	30	13 yrs. 7 mos.	
Terman Group Test of Mental Ability	128	15 yrs. 7 mos.	102
Stanford Binet		14 yrs. 10 mos.	106
Porteus Maze		14 yrs.	

arithmetic and perception of form. Her emotional reaction to all tests was good; she was excited but not worried and showed no unusual depression at failure or signs of discouragement.

With the limited psychological service available, the teacher-counselor was fortunate to obtain this thorough study of the girl's mental functioning on the different kinds of tasks comprising the tests.

Health examination: A thorough health examination showed Helen to be in good physical condition. Although she was underweight, according to the height-weight tables, the physician decided that nothing special need be done about it because:

1. She was slight in body build.
2. She had been gaining weight for a number of months.
3. She had begun to take responsibility herself for eating a more adequate diet.

Interpretation and synthesis: The report of the psychologist came as a surprise to the teacher-counselor, who had obtained the impression that Helen's IQ was considerably higher than 106. In trying to analyze her estimate of intelligence, the teacher-counselor realized that she was impressed by Helen's conversational ability and maturity of observation and by her good school achievement. Part of the conversational ability was the result of a pleasing, interested, and vivacious manner. Part of the high school achievement could be attributed to the favorable impression she made on teachers and the amount of time and effort she spent on her school work. The tests indicated that, despite her apparently high social intelligence, she may not have the kind of mental

ability necessary to succeed in the college and graduate work required in preparing for a position as psychologist. If the academic requirements were to become more severe than they are at present, could she meet them without too much strain? Does she have a reserve of study time and mental ability to meet additional scholastic demands? If not, will this additional strain and pressure be too great for her emotional reserves? The family history suggests emotional instability. Her father seemed to have suicidal tendencies; two members of her family had been hospitalized for manic-depressive psychosis; the older sister, Rose, gave a definite impression of maladjustment. In short, there is evidence of a highly charged emotional situation in Helen's family. Although Helen has shown unusual insight into her own behavior and has adjusted to a difficult family situation very well, it might be unwise to subject her to too great academic difficulty. While it would be good for her to go away to college and to get free from the home atmosphere, it would be bad for her to fail.

She might consider a substitute vocational goal: to attend a junior college for two years and prepare for a position as secretary to a psychologist or in a social work agency or clinic. Her interests in athletics, in people, and in psychology would be utilized in work as assistant recreational director or physical education teacher. She would enjoy a job as receptionist for summers or on a part-time basis while she was continuing her education. The family's limited financial resources would make it necessary for her to obtain a scholarship or do part-time work or take a full-time job to save enough money to finance a year or two of education. She should take all these factors into consideration in making her educational plans.

During the process of making this case study, it became evident, first, that Helen's problem was one of educational and vocational planning rather than of emotional instability, and, second, that it was the older sister, Rose, who was in need of psychotherapy. By learning so much about the family background in this case and comparing Helen's behavior at home with her unusually good response to difficulty in the

test situation and with her objectivity and insight in the interviews, the teacher-counselor was convinced that the reported home behavior was not pathological but quite normal under the circumstances. It was possible for the teacher-counselor, through the school guidance specialist, to refer the older sister to a competent psychiatric social worker who helped her to see her husband's point of view and accept him rather than try to make him over.

Making this case study gave the teacher-counselor an increased appreciation of the complex family relations with which many of her students have to deal. It also gave her a better understanding of Helen. Consequently she was able to help her make suitable and realistic educational and vocational plans.

The therapeutic value of this case study is less obvious. Helen found it helpful to explain her behavior to a sympathetic and objective listener; thus the childishness of her temper tantrums and crying to get what she wanted became more evident to her. As she later went through the process of rethinking her educational and vocational plans, the scientific method of making personal decisions probably became clearer to her. Other members of the family likewise received help: Polly's sense of worth and her satisfaction in her household tasks were increased; the mother released some of her tension in the long, uninterrupted opportunity to "talk it out"; Rose saw her need for help and made connections with a psychiatric social worker. Although making this case study was time-consuming, the time spent may be justified on several grounds: the teacher-counselor increased her understanding of human behavior and was thereby better able to guide other students; Helen was helped to adjust to her difficult family situation and to plan more intelligently for the future; the family were helped a little to accept themselves and one another.

Common Faults in Interpreting Case Data. Some of the most common faults in interpreting case studies are the following:

1. The teacher-counselor infers too much from the in-

formation available and arrives at a judgment or generalization without sufficient basis for it.

2. He tends to oversimplify behavior. Some people look primarily for external causes of a difficulty. They believe a person would not be a criminal if he had a nice tiled bathroom and good food. Some people look primarily for hereditary causes. They seek a history of hereditary nervous instability. Some look for physical causes. Some look to companions as the cause of difficulty. Some believe troubles arise only in the mind of the individual—that there is hidden somewhere within the individual a complete history of his character and personality and that the trick is to secure this history by breaking down barriers and inhibitions. As a matter of fact, all these factors have some influence on an individual. Each may enter to a certain degree into every case, but none acts singly.

3. He neglects information that gives insight into the development of parents' attitudes and drives that are often the most important factors influencing the child's choices and behavior.

4. He fails to recognize the difficulty of habit revision and thinks that a bit of advice is all that is necessary; he assumes that parents can change their behavior toward their children if they are merely told to do so. He tends to blame the parents and makes them feel guilty instead of recognizing that they need sympathetic help in working out their own problems. Many cases of student difficulty are family-centered and progress cannot be made until changes in family attitude and behavior are effected.

5. He fails to recognize the environmental forces that are influencing the individual in his family and in his social groups.

6. He needs more background for interpreting the facts collected; for example, more understanding of the meaning of an IQ, its relation to school success, to vocations, to personality trends, to delinquency.

7. He needs to avoid being overinfluenced by first impressions and to be more receptive to new ideas, to leads and clues that the individual gives.

✓ The Relation of Case Studies to Interviews ✓

There are some persons who seem to think that case histories and cumulative records may be unnecessary or even detrimental in counseling. For several reasons it would be unfortunate if this point of view became widespread. First, the case history, including the social and cultural as well as the psychological forces that have been, and are, influencing the individual, is necessary for a complete and significant diagnosis. Second, an understanding of these forces and life patterns is essential especially with individuals who feel inadequate to meet life's problems. Without knowing their limitations, the counselor may allow them to become involved in situations in which their deficiencies become still more evident. Third, the argument that having given case history data to the counselor, the individual may then shift responsibility for the counseling process to the counselor, does not hold if this information is collected by another person. By having developmental records and case histories at hand, the counselor has the advantage of knowing about the individual without having to use interview time to get this basic information. Moreover, if environmental changes are to be made, the student may accept them more readily if he knows they have been recommended on the basis of thorough knowledge. While recognizing the value of the student's active participation in the process of self-appraisal and adjustment, the counselor should not neglect other resources for helping him to understand himself.

✓ The Trends in Case Study Procedures ✓

There are certain trends in the making of case studies that will lead to improvement in work with individuals. These trends may be summarized as follows:

1. To start with the situation as the individual himself sees it and follow the leads he gives. This approach is differ-

ent from the old systematic taking of case histories beginning with paternal and maternal history. In the end, the important areas will have been explored, but the emphasis will have been on those that seem to be most closely related to the particular case. In the case reported on pages 433 to 444, the family background seemed most significantly related to the girl's problem and was therefore explored first. Practice today emphasizes positive factors in the present more than the comprehensive history of the past.

2. To pay more attention to attitudes and relationships and possibly less to the physical environment.

3. To make the case study family- or even community-centered rather than individual-centered.

4. To include direct quotations from autobiographies and interviews. For example, direct quotations of a father's statements about his son and a relative's remarks concerning the relationship between father and son, and a description of the observed behavior of father and son in certain situations give a much more valuable basis for understanding the case than a generalization about the father's attitudes.

5. To include responses of the individual in experimental situations that permit comparison of his responses with those of other individuals.

6. To study "normal" individuals as well as those who present serious problems .

7. To make the case study more readable and to eliminate "dead wood."

✓ The Sources and Kinds of Case Study Data ✓

In general, in making a case study, it is better to follow leads that the individual gives than to adhere to an outline for making case studies. The outline, however, is useful in acquainting the inexperienced worker with kinds of information that might be significant. Sometimes, as in the case reported in this chapter, the family history is of prime importance; in other cases, a study of the individual's present problems of adjustment may be more immediately useful.

Methods of Obtaining Data. The chief sources of information concerning a case are as follows:

1. School records, which usually give address, date of birth, name of parents, occupation and nationality of parents, academic subjects, and student's marks.
2. Interviews with student. Under this heading may be included all the informal contacts between teacher and student as they live and talk with each other every day.
3. Interviews with parents, teachers, and other people who know the individual.
4. Observation and interviews in the home.
5. Observation of student in school, on the playground, on the street, in social affairs, and in other school situations.
6. Results of standardized tests of intelligence, achievement, emotionality, interests, attitudes.
7. Cumulative records sent from other schools.
8. Life stories written by the student himself.
9. Daily schedules kept by the student.
10. Questionnaires answered by the student.

If social agencies have been assisting the case, it should be cleared through the Social Service Exchange.

Although an outline suggesting the kinds of information that are often significant in a case is helpful, the outline should never be followed in a stereotyped manner. The subject should be encouraged to talk freely so that novel and special points of interest, significant abilities and disabilities, leads, and trends peculiar to the case may be obtained. An analysis of a large number of case studies and records used in psychological and psychiatric clinics shows that the information may be classified under twelve fields of inquiry:²

Information on the Present Problem. In addition to the routine identification and registration data, already available to advisers in educational institutions, a picture of the present problem should be secured. It is necessary to know

² The author is indebted to Mrs. Percival M. Symonds' analysis of case record forms for many of the details included in the following pages.

the problem as it appears to the student himself as well as the way it appears to the person who recognized and referred the problem. The methods previously used in treating the problem, the satisfactions the student is getting from his particular behavior, and the emotional reactions of others to the behavior are important items of information. A student's own analysis of his difficulty is often enlightening. The teacher is in a strategic position to secure information relating to the individual's school adjustment.

Background of Personalities in the Family. Certain facts regarding the grandfathers, grandmothers, father and mother, brothers and sisters are sometimes extremely significant. Since the contribution of each grandparent to the inheritance of the child is, according to Galton, only one fourth that contributed by each parent, and since the social and psychological influence of the parents is usually greater than that of the grandparents, it is more important, in the majority of cases, to obtain information concerning the parents than concerning the grandparents. But any of the items about the grandparents listed in this section may be significant. The grandparents may exert a direct influence on the case or they may have influenced the parents' attitudes and behavior. The occupation of the grandparents gives one indication of the intellectual and social status of the family. Nationality also colors the customs, ideals, and social standards in the home; and these customs or standards may be the most important factors in a child's development. All this information cannot be obtained for all students, but it is possible and valuable to know at least the educational background and occupation of the parents and all students.

Health: The item regarding the health of the student's ancestors most frequently included in a case study is the incidence of the following conditions: circulatory and kidney diseases, tuberculosis, gonorhea, syphilis, feeble-mindedness, nervous breakdowns or insanity, depression, suicide, alcoholism, periodic headaches, and use of drugs. Two diseases—syphilis and gonorhea—may be transmitted to the offspring before birth. Feeble-mindedness and certain types of insanity

are heritable. The exact type of mental disorders should be learned if possible, since there is great variation in the effect on the offspring of different types of mental disorders.

Tuberculosis is not transmitted to the offspring in the germ plasm. But the inheritance of a bodily structure unusually susceptible to tuberculosis and the danger of infection after birth in a tubercular household are to be considered.

Similarly, although nervous instability and the effects of alcoholism and drugs are not inherited in the biological sense, it is well to know of the existence of these conditions because of the possible inheritance of a tendency toward nervous instability and because of the influence of these conditions upon the home environment. A history of nervous instability in the family may account for the lack of control on the part of parents that is producing maladjustment in the student. Poor health of the parents may be causing an underlying irritability that is a source of daily conflict.

Personal characteristics: The personalities of the student's ancestors are often a significant factor in his adjustment. The items usually included in case records are unusual physical characteristics; intelligence; moods; special interests and abilities; attitude toward self, family, social group, occupation, and sex; methods of work; acceptance or avoidance of responsibility; adaptability; and peculiarities of behavior.

Persistent mental mechanisms acquired in the parents' early childhood frequently interfere with the development of the personality of their children. For example, one father who, as a child, had always occupied the center of the stage, continued to do so after he married and interfered with his children's development by his craving for power and insistence upon having absolute authority. Equally undesirable are the parents who permit the family atmosphere to become infected with their feelings of inferiority.

Failure on the part of parents to achieve adult maturity may be a cause of maladjustment in their children. One woman who had been brought up by oversolicitous parents resisted the idea of motherhood, refused its responsibilities, and was displaced in her husband's affection by the child.

Clashes sometimes occur between parents and children of

opposite dispositions and points of view. Some parents are not "oriented in the modern world." They are "set in their ways." They fail to get their children's point of view and lose perspective, so that they cannot distinguish between major and minor values. They do not realize that adolescents have a very strong loyalty toward the opinions and attitudes of friends of their own age.

A court record or other indication of criminality, social antagonism, or delinquency may have a bearing in certain cases. The stigma attached to a parent who has been in prison is occasionally the primary factor in certain school problem cases.

Nationality, citizenship status, religion: The nationality, citizenship status, and religion of the parents and grandparents and their attitudes toward these factors explain certain adolescent problems. Conflicts arise when the traditions of foreign-born parents clash with the normal desires of young people growing up in the new land. For example, the strict supervision and severe discipline of an Italian parent who refused to allow his adolescent daughter to associate with boys of her own age resulted in serious difficulty and rebellion.

Educational history: The educational history of the child's ancestors may be indicative of their intelligence and interests and tells much about the cultural background in which the child grew up. The attitude of parents toward education and toward educated people is significant, especially in the case of conflict between the parent and child regarding educational questions. In some cases, the parent is ambitious for the child to receive an education beyond his capacities; in other cases, the parent opposes the child's desire to obtain a college education.

Economic and social status: Knowledge of the economic and social status of both grandparents and parents throws light on many problems. A sudden change of economic status is especially significant. Unemployment of parents precipitates problems. Economic insecurity operates as a threat to every member of the family. Social maladjustment in college is frequently due to the social and economic background of the student's family. Either extreme—lack of cultural ad-

vantages or overaffluence—may be a factor in the student's maladjustment.

Occupations: The occupations of the parents and grandparents are perhaps the best single indications of the child's social and economic background. Frequent changes in occupation and the nature of these changes, the suitability of the work to the capacity of the individual and its power of satisfying him and other members of the family are factors of importance in particular cases. The influence of the vocational history of a parent upon the parent-child relationship is illustrated by the case of a father who, having to go to work at the age of fourteen, acquired ideals of application to work that resulted in his insisting that his fourteen-year-old son "improve every shining minute."

Social activities: Knowledge of the social activities of the parents and their other daily habits of living is decidedly relevant to the understanding of their children, as are also the attitudes of parents toward society and their interest in civic movements. Parents who meet people frankly and freely, have many friends, participate in group affairs, and are at ease in making social contacts, provide an entirely different environment for the child from that supplied by parents who are diffident and bashful, reticent, suspicious, or seclusive. The child who has been accustomed to meet strangers freely, entertain guests, and adjust himself to many different personalities is not likely to have difficulty in adjusting to the wider social responsibilities of adolescence and to the boarding school or college situation.

The presence of extraneous persons in the home—boarders, relatives, and dependents—is often involved in problem cases, because of their influence on the individual being studied, his attitudes toward them, and their ability and willingness to cooperate in carrying out the recommendations that are made for the case.

Atmosphere of parents' homes: The atmosphere of the parents' homes and their early childhood experiences often help to explain their behavior toward their children. But parents' behavior cannot be precisely predicted from a knowledge of their past experience. A parent who has suffered

deprivation in childhood may treat his own children lavishly, or he may insist upon their acquiring his own early standards of economy. A parent who has been severely disciplined as a child may be very lax with his children, or he may treat them as his parents treated him. Family psychological history often repeats itself.

Marital relationship: The marital relationship of the parents is an especially significant factor in a child's development. A wide discrepancy between husband and wife in age, economic or social status, religion, or education may cause serious maladjustment of the parents that is in turn reflected in the children. The parents' preparation for marriage, their emotional maturity, independence, economic security, hopes and fears regarding marriage, the extent to which the hopes were fulfilled, and points of agreement and disagreement between them are additional factors affecting the relation of parents to each other and to their children. The adolescent's attitude toward love and marriage is largely built up from his observations of the marital relations in his own family. If these relations have been happy, the child acquires a wholesome attitude toward love and marriage. If the relationship between his father and mother has been unhappy, the child may never achieve normal heterosexual relationships. Moreover, the parent whose love relationship is unsatisfactory may fix his affection intensely upon the child.

Broken homes may create conflicts in loyalties and have been found to be associated with maladjustment of high school and college students. In a group of thirty-three delinquent girls studied by Bridges,³ fully 70 per cent came from broken homes. In only ten cases were both parents living at home. Supervision and discipline were often absent, or were spasmodic and inconsistent.

The relationships of the parents to their children: The relationships of the parents to their children are most important. The equitable distribution of the affection of both parents to all their children and of the children to both parents is basic to good development. Favoritism on the part

³ J. W. Bridges, "A Study of a Group of Delinquent Girls," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 34:187-204, June, 1927.

of parents, unfavorable comparison of one child with another, lack of real affection on the part of parents, and many other attitudes and responses of parents to children may result in problems which persist through high school and college. "A parent is bad who builds up in the child a feeling of inferiority."⁴

A possessive mother or a domineering father makes it difficult for the adolescent to gain independence from the family and sometimes causes an undue feeling of obligation on the part of the child. Occasionally a father who is in a subservient position in business becomes a petty tyrant in the home. To quote Miriam Van Waters again: "A parent is bad who will not let a child grow up, who does all the talking, makes all the decisions, and meets all the issues."⁵

Some of the other attitudes on the part of parents which have been found to wreck children most seriously are distrust or lack of confidence in the child, a faulty characterization of him, lack of sympathy and understanding, failure to see the child's possibilities, dogmatism, overindulgence, nagging, lack of sense of humor, and constant interference with the child's activities.

Method of discipline: The method of discipline used in the home is a significant factor in many school problems and may take any of the following forms: severe corporal punishment, scolding, contrasting the child's behavior or achievement with that of others, depriving him of privileges, bribing, threatening, rewarding, appealing to his affection or reason, and allowing him to suffer the natural consequences of his acts. Sometimes attempts on the part of parents to build habits of obedience result in creating rebellion. Parents who "wobble and squabble" regarding their policy of treating a child are likely to cause a feeling of insecurity on the part of the child. The reasonableness of requests, the amount of freedom and responsibility allowed, the child's reaction to the home methods of discipline, and the extent to which he participates in formulating and carrying out family policies

⁴ Miriam Van Waters, "Nineteen Ways of Being a Bad Parent," *Survey Graphic*, 57:435, January, 1927.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 439.

and plans are parts of the total home situation that should be ascertained, if possible.

Variations in the child's behavior: Differences between the child's behavior in the home and his behavior outside the home give indications of whether the difficulty is primarily within the individual or primarily in the environment. For example, one high school girl referred to a clinic by an older brother was found to be making an unusually good adjustment to the maladjusted people with whom she had to deal in her own home.

Special accidents or events: Special accidents or events that have occurred in the family, such as a suicide, disabling injury, or loss of money may color the entire atmosphere of the family.

Factors in the family routine: Factors in the family routine may cause or accentuate conflicts on the part of the child. Tension between parent and child is frequently increased by the parent's being at home all the time unemployed or working in the same building in which he lives and having few friends and interests outside the home. On the other hand, the withdrawal of the father or mother from the children may be equally detrimental. The war demonstrated the harm that may come to children when both parents go out to work.

Brothers and sisters: Always significant is a study of the student's brothers and sisters, their relationship to him, and the parents' attitude toward each of the children. In one situation, the younger brother received all the praise and favors that were bestowed by the parents, "tattled" on the older brother, enjoyed seeing him punished, and naturally won his wholehearted hatred. The interests, education, behavior difficulties, and activities of older brothers and sisters influence those of the younger children. The achievement of a brilliant older brother or sister being set as a goal for a less gifted child is in some cases the chief explanation of a serious school maladjustment. For example, a high school girl of average intelligence suddenly began to fail in all her school work. It was found that her parents were expecting her to succeed along the same lines that an older, more gifted

daughter had been following. The older daughter had died; the younger daughter knew the parents were expecting her to fulfill their ambitions for the older sister. She found that what was expected of her was beyond her capacity and gave up entirely. When the parents realized that they were demanding the impossible, they adapted their expectations to the younger daughter's ability and a happy adjustment was made. There is danger of maladjustment if the goals placed before children are on the one hand too remote and difficult, or on the other hand too easy.

It is important to know the position and status in the family of the individual being studied. An older child is sometimes overtaxed with the care of younger brothers and sisters and may lack the cultural opportunities of his younger siblings. The only child of mature parents and the adopted child also may have problems peculiar to their places in the family.

Although the majority of facts about the family background of a student can best be obtained by a trained social case worker, the teacher is often in a position to secure a number of important items mentioned in the preceding pages. Parents or grandparents who come to the school "to see about their Jimmy" reveal to the teacher in the course of conversation many of their personal characteristics, their attitude toward and relationships with the child, their methods of discipline, their nationality, cultural background, and, to a certain extent, their social and economic status. Additional information about the economic and social conditions in the home is often given to teachers spontaneously by the students. Teachers learn much about the educational background of the parents and their attitudes toward education when they discuss with students their future educational and vocational plans. Significant accidents and events that have occurred in the family are frequently confided by students to teachers whom they trust. Teachers occasionally have important information concerning the subject's brothers and sisters whom they have previously had in their classes. A home visit, of course, reveals to the teacher a great many more details regarding the family background of his students.

Home and Neighborhood Environment. Many factors in the home and neighborhood environment are important in the treatment of a case as well as in its diagnosis. The spirit of the neighborhood, the facilities for wholesome recreation, the existence of gangs, pool rooms, dance halls, and other undesirable features are stimuli that tend to evoke certain responses on the part of the individual. The type of home—whether it tends toward comfort and healthfulness or toward squalor and unhealthfulness—is an environmental factor which must be considered. The number and kinds of books, magazines, and daily papers are cultural resources of the home that are worth noting. Deficiencies in cultural background are sometimes keenly felt when the adolescent goes away to boarding school or college, and may result in social maladjustment in the new situation.

Economic conditions: Changes in economic status, sources of income, and indebtedness may be causes of problems primarily financial, but may also contribute to other types of difficulties. The allowances given to children—the amount, the children's responsibility for spending, the frequency with which allowances are given, and by whom they are given—may be especially important factors in achieving adult independence and skill and self-control in budgeting and spending money.

Recreational interests and resources: Recreational interests and resources in the home often throw light on family relationships. The books, magazines, and music that are enjoyed, the conversation of the family, the vacation plans, the interference with or facilitation of home study—any of these may have a direct bearing on school achievement and study problems.

Individual's attitude toward his home: Another item to include in the case study is the individual's attitude toward his home, which is indicated both by reluctance to go home and to stay at home, and by his remarks to other people about the comfort, attractiveness, and recreational possibilities of his home.

The observing teacher will note desirable and undesirable features of the school neighborhood, even though he himself

lives in another section of the town or city. If the teacher lives in the environment from which his students come, he can obtain many of the items of information listed under "home and neighborhood environment." One teacher, at the beginning of the term, made it a practice to drive past the homes of all the pupils in her homeroom group to get an idea of the home and neighborhood of each student.

Early Development. The history of health habits and physical condition is also needed in the guidance of high school and college students. One high school girl was characterized as dull and lazy by one teacher, was given additional outside work by another teacher, and was treated in an oversympathetic way by a third teacher. None of these teachers knew that the child had suffered from sleeping sickness, which was largely responsible for her behavior in high school.

Conditions of birth: Conditions of birth—premature or abnormal delivery—feeding habits in infancy, difficulty in weaning, methods used to persuade the child to eat the right kind and amount of food, the age at which the child learned to feed himself, and his use of tea, coffee, or alcoholic beverages are significant from both a physical and a psychological standpoint. Some of these early conditions may be the genesis of habits of crying, irritability, and a negative reaction to the world. Kenworthy emphasized the psychological importance of the nursing process in the following paragraph:

If one had to choose the most important fact of the child's experience and the one that, if improperly handled, could make for more emotional maladjustment than any other at this period of the child's life, one would stress the need for proper handling of the nursing situation.⁶

A history of enuresis frequently enters into problems of later childhood.

Early health history: Light may be thrown on the present health status by a physician's report and interpretation of the effect of operations, serious accidents, and past diseases,

⁶ Marion E. Kenworthy, "Social Maladjustments (Emotional) in the Intellectually Normal," *Mental Hygiene*, 7:839, October, 1930.

such as measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough, mumps, convulsions, fainting spells, and spasms, chorea, otitis, infantile paralysis, encephalitis, and meningitis. Any of these conditions may have had detrimental physical and psychological consequences.

Psychological development: In addition to the physical development, facts about the psychological development of the individual are important. The age of talking may indicate mental retardation or acceleration. In general, the dull child learns to talk later than the bright child, but there are so many other factors involved in learning to talk that the assumption should not be made that because a child does not begin to talk until the second or third year, he is necessarily a dull child.⁷ The attitude of the parents toward the child—whether the child is treated with affection or indifference, whether every desire is fulfilled almost before it is expressed, whether the child occupies the center of the stage on all occasions or is told that “children should be seen and not heard”—may have a direct bearing on certain later problems.

Through conversation with parents who visit the school, with parents in their own homes, with brothers and sisters, and with the subject himself, teachers may frequently obtain important facts concerning the developmental history of a student.

Intelligence: In educational and vocational guidance it is necessary to have accurate information concerning the student's scholastic aptitude. This is best secured by means of standardized intelligence tests administered by a trained person. On the high school and college levels several different types of examination should be used. No important decision should be made on the basis of the results of a single examination. From mental tests are secured the mental age, intelligence in relation to chronological age (intelligence quotient), some idea of the mental processes and emotional reactions of the individual as evidenced by his responses while taking the test, ability on different parts of the test—in arithmetic, vocabulary, general information, judgment,

⁷ Ruth Strang, *An Introduction to Child Study* (Revised Edition), pp. 58-59. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

reasoning—types of errors made, and the individual's position in relation to his class and to the general population of the same chronological age. The best tests to use at different age levels, and need for interpretation of test scores in the light of the test used, the social and educational situation, and the observations of the examiner at the time of giving the test have been discussed on pages 376 to 391.

Knowing the intellectual scope of students is essential in helping them to achieve to the fullest extent of their capacity and to avoid undue worry, lack of self-confidence, or feelings of inferiority. One of the first questions a teacher asks when dealing with a problem of failure is: "Is the work suited to the intellectual capacity of the student?"

Ideally, the teacher should be given this information concerning the intelligence of a student by trained psychologists. People's judgments of the intelligence of children on the basis of their general appearance and facial expression have been shown to be inaccurate.

Academic Achievement. The cumulative school records of marks, attendance, failures, length of time spent in each grade, transfers, and honors are enlightening. They show the trend of academic achievement as indicated by teachers' marks, fluctuations at different stages of development, and variations in different subjects.

Standardized tests: Standardized tests of achievement show a student's position in relation to a larger group. As in the case of intelligence tests, an idea of the mental processes required in the tests, emotional reactions to difficulty, and specific strengths and weaknesses in each subject may be obtained. The results of standardized tests should be supplemented by evidence of the student's mastery of information of the kind not acquired in the average school and of his common sense in dealing with practical situations.

Attitudes of students: Fully as important as the end results represented by the teacher's marks and the scores on tests are a student's attitudes toward the subjects and indications of the means by which he achieved these results—whether by working hard in certain courses, by incidental contacts with

people interested in the fields of study, by leisure reading and travel, or in other ways. Shifting from one type of school to another, as, for example, from a church school to a public school, or from a public school to a fashionable private school, may be the chief cause of difficulty in a particular case.

The student's early and present attitude toward school, toward his teachers, toward certain subjects, toward failure; his estimate of his own ability (one high school girl classed herself as an M.D., which she announced meant "mentally deficient"); his reasons for his failure; his attitude toward praise and blame; his educational plans—all throw light on many academic problems. The teacher's opinion of a student's behavior, explanation of his failure, and attitude toward him may give further insight, as will also the parents' attitude toward a student's failures and successes and toward the school and the teachers. The teacher who has a mental-hygiene rather than a punitive conception of discipline; who regards each student as a unique individual rather than as a representative of a "type"; who sees the possibilities for growth in every individual; who gives credit for achievement where credit is due; and who does not assume that annoying conduct has a moral basis—teachers having these attitudes are likely to be an influence for good.

Study habits: An analysis of the student's study habits at home and at school—the amount of time spent in study, the regularity of his study periods, the ratio of distraction to concentration, his reaction to noise and distractions, his preference for studying alone or in a group—is useful in dealing with academic problems.

The attitude of other students toward him and his attitude toward them are also significant. Failure in school work is sometimes due to fear of being thought a "grind."

Although the school records will furnish information concerning the academic marks of students, the teacher must be relied upon to contribute important details concerning the student's attitude toward his work and his habits of study.

Health. Since health is basic to satisfactory adjustment, all physical difficulties should be studied and eliminated as

early as possible. Sometimes a physical defect or peculiarity has a psychological effect that is more serious than the physical inconvenience.

The physical and medical examination will detect defects of vision, hearing, posture, feet, teeth, speech, nose, and throat; existing diseases such as tuberculosis, syphilis, and heart trouble; and signs of malnutrition, fatigue, anemia, glandular disturbances, lack of neuromuscular coordination, and susceptibility to certain specific diseases, such as diphtheria. The correction of these physical impairments may result in the solution of a problem that seemed to be primarily emotional or social. Malnutrition, a serious illness, glandular disturbance, or physical defects are frequently associated with emotional as well as physical problems. For example, being markedly overweight may tend to make a student more sluggish mentally and physically and to isolate him from the activities of his group.

On the high school and college levels, as well as earlier, habits of sleeping, eating, elimination, cleanliness, and giving attention to the work or play at hand are major factors in successful adjustment. The student who has formed these fundamental health habits is more likely to have established satisfactory emotional habits than one who has a chaotic daily schedule. A well-ordered physical routine furnishes a stabilizing background for other activities.

Special habits and mannerisms, such as stuttering, lisping, using "baby talk," twitching, biting nails, sucking the thumb, rubbing the nose, biting the lips, showing fear of various objects and people, are easily observed and may be either symptoms or causes of maladjustment. Although the technical diagnosis of the physical condition of a student must be made by a competent physician, the teacher can contribute to the case study valuable information concerning habits she has observed and the student's cooperation in carrying out the doctor's recommendations.

Sex Development. Three areas of inquiry concerning sex development are significant: (1) sex information, (2) pubertal development, and (3) sex relationships.

The most important questions to ask in regard to sex information are: When was sex curiosity first manifested? What kind of sex information has been received? From what source was it received? At what age was it received? How did the individual react toward this information? What is the parents' attitude toward sex and toward giving information concerning sex to their children? What are the individual's present ideas and feelings about sex?

The pubertal development of the boy may be ascertained by change of voice, growth of hair on the face and other parts of the body, and nocturnal emissions. The pubertal development of the girl is more readily recognized by the occurrence of menstruation. The character and frequency of the periods and any difficulties should be noted. How the boy or girl was prepared for pubertal changes, his or her attitude, and the parents' attitude toward these changes throw light on adolescent development.

Information about a student's reactions to the same sex and to the opposite sex is enlightening. At one extreme, a withdrawal from members of the opposite sex, and at the other extreme, a headlong pursuit of the opposite sex may be noted. Early love affairs, sex experiences, "crushes," masturbation, and the individual's and the parents' attitudes toward these experiences are frequently major factors in adolescent adjustment. In the classroom and in social and extraclassroom activities, the teacher has opportunities to secure significant data regarding this phase of development.

Social Behavior and Interests. The social adjustment of the individual may be indicated by (1) clashes with social rules and regulations, (2) daily leisure activities, and (3) relations with companions and friends.

In regard to lying, stealing, temper tantrums, cheating, and other antisocial behavior, the following points should be noted: the age at which the behavior was first manifested; its frequency; the situations in which it occurs; the stimuli that provoke it; the persons to whom it is manifested; the variations in response when different people are present; the reactions of parents, teachers, and friends to the student's

behavior when the misconduct is detected; the after-effects; the individual's feeling about it; and the satisfactions he gets from the behavior. A court record, if one exists, should, of course, be studied.

Leisure activities: The daily leisure activities may be studied in a detailed and comprehensive way by obtaining daily schedules from the individual. These records show the kinds of activities in which he engaged; the amount of time spent in each activity; and the extent to which the activities are solitary or in groups, outdoor or indoor, carried on at home or outside the home, worth while or trivial. The individual's likes and dislikes, kind of activities preferred, recreational facilities, and changes desired in the present way of spending leisure should also be ascertained. The remarks made by the subject are often very illuminating and should be accurately quoted in the case record. The following remarks made by a high school boy illustrate this point: "Nobody likes me, not even the bus driver." "I want to stay small so I can play, but you have to grow up whether you like it or not." "I wish I had hundreds of friends."

Companions and friends: The companions and friends of childhood and adolescence frequently exert more influence on an individual than any other factor, though to some extent the choice of friends or lack of friends may be considered a symptom rather than a cause of maladjustment. In either event, a knowledge of the number, age, characteristics, economic and social status, and interests of friends is important in any developmental study. The individual's capacity for making and keeping friends, his way of choosing friends, his preference for a small number of intimate friends or a large number of acquaintances, his desire for other friends or group associations, the attitude of his family toward his friends and of his friends toward his family, should also be noted.

Emotional accompaniment: The emotional accompaniment of behavior of all kinds should be noted. "Showing off" and a domineering manner may indicate merely a desire to get attention; daydreaming, a way of getting satisfactions that real life fails to give; running away from home, an effort to break away from family domination and to establish inde-

pendence. A teacher who has informal contacts with students outside the classroom, who is entertained in their homes, and who attends their social activities is in a position to learn much about their emotional development.

Religious and Emotional Adjustment. Religious attitudes, including attitudes toward life and its meaning and purpose, are generally considered crucial in the adolescent's adjustment. The specific items to investigate are the religious education that he has received at home and elsewhere, the regularity of his attendance at church and Sunday school and his own volition in these matters, his sense of sin and dependence upon some power outside himself, disagreement between parents or between parent and child in regard to religious beliefs and practices, the child's attitude toward death, and the purpose and plan that he has made for his life. Bertrand Russell described his childhood religious experience vividly in *The Conquest of Happiness*. He says that at six years of age his favorite hymn was "Weary of Earth and Laden with My Sin," that at adolescence he desired to commit suicide, from which he was restrained by his interest in learning more mathematics, and that eventually he adjusted himself to life by seeing clearly which of his desires were possible to attain and which should be abandoned.

The chief value of tests of emotionality, attitudes, and interests is in the leads given by specific responses made to the questions in these tests. These leads may be followed up in interviews with the individual. In the course of skillfully conducted interviews, the things that make the person happy or sad, or worried, or angry; his favorite topics of conversation, things about which he is curious; his attitude toward other people, whether friendly and cooperative or suspicious and antagonistic; and the content of his daydreams and nightdreams may be disclosed. In the study of delinquent girls⁸ the majority were described as "variable" in mood, with "cheerful as a close second." They were "submissive rather than assertive, bashful rather than brazen," "followers rather than leaders."

⁸ J. W. Bridges, *op. cit.*, p. 190.

Samples of creative work which the individual has done in schools or on his own initiative are objective evidences of interests and sometimes reveal emotional conflicts. Diary records also have revealed interests and emotional life.

Goals and Purposes. An individual's philosophy of life, the things he wants most, are especially significant. These may be expressed in autobiographies, questionnaires, compositions written in English classes, or in interviews.

Vocational Interests and Experiences. Vocational adjustment is another pervasive problem of adolescents. Three lines of inquiry in this area are (1) the parents' vocations and their attitudes toward various vocations, (2) the individual's own ability and interests in vocations, and (3) his previous vocational training and experience.

It has been estimated that about 75 per cent of children would be able to succeed in the occupations followed by their parents.⁹ The remaining 25 per cent would probably not be happily adjusted in their parents' occupations. Serious cases of maladjustment sometimes occur when the parent insists upon a child's following the parental occupation. In a case study, therefore, the father's occupation, attitude toward it, and choice of occupation for his child should be noted.

Individual's present and past vocational interests: The individual's present and past vocational interests and the bases for these interests—acquaintance with someone engaged in the occupation, lack of knowledge of other occupations, advice received from various sources, opportunities open to him for training, financial and other rewards of the occupation—should be ascertained.

Previous experience: Previous experience in supporting himself, partly or wholly, gives indications of the individual's capacity to succeed in the occupations chosen, attitude toward work and toward fellow workers and employer, tenacity of purpose, and need of further training. Frequently tied up with the problems of choosing, preparing for, and

⁹ Leta S. Hollingworth, *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, p. 76. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1928.

succeeding in a vocation are problems of sharing earnings with the family and gaining psychological independence.

Facilities Available for Treatment. Many of the social resources that may be used for adjustment of the individual to his environment are suggested under the preceding headings. These and other suggestions by the individual and by people interested in him should be summarized: the relatives, teachers, and agencies, and what they can do for the individual in a constructive way; the facilities for recreation in the home, school, and community; and the vocational or educational opportunities offered by the environment.

These are the areas of inquiry usually included in a complete case study—to the reader, probably a bewildering number of details. But having an outline of this kind is less bewildering than having no knowledge of the points that have frequently been found to be significant. The points mentioned are valuable in suggesting possible causes of a baffling problem, each of which may be eliminated in turn if it proves not to be illuminating. Lee and Kenworthy¹⁰ give a very helpful outline, emphasizing the interpretation and significance of items of information in each field of inquiry.

A comprehensive case study might easily take one hundred and fifty hours. No teacher has the time to collect such a mass of information about his students, but with the help of this outline he can explore more thoroughly the areas giving the greatest promise of throwing light on a student's development. The chief value of this knowledge of the case study method is the background it gives for understanding a student who is trying to understand himself.

✧ The Limitations of the Case Study ✧

The limitations of case studies are essentially limitations of the persons who make them. A person who does case

¹⁰ Porter R. Lee and Marion E. Kenworthy, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*, pp. 294–309. The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, New York, 1929.

work ought to be mature. This kind of maturity has nothing to do with age but rather with adjustment in the major areas of his life: in the family, in his work, and in relation to sex and society. Unless a person is fairly well adjusted, he cannot do effective case work. Persons who have worked through their own difficulties are often especially helpful to other people because they have profited by their own experience. Another difficulty within the case worker is a tendency to impose his own inclinations: a teacher has a tendency to teach; a preacher, to preach; a mother, to be oversolicitous. The bias of the worker, already discussed in connection with the interview, must be recognized. Most serious is the limited ability of teacher-counselors to interpret and unify the data collected and to use it for the good of the student.

In addition to difficulties within the worker, there are inaccuracies of memory. Many details of family history and early development are lost in the fog of faulty observation and memory. Case studies, however, are gaining precision through the use of standardized tests, better technics of interviewing and of reporting observations, and the inclusion of other relevant quantitative data. At best, case history data are fragmentary; they do not give a complete picture of the individual. Some significant information has been withheld, some overlooked, some rejected by the worker as of little worth.

✓ Evaluating the Results of Student Guidance ✓

How can a teacher know whether his guidance work has been successful? First, he should keep his attention focused on the children growing up in a free society; he should see clearly their needs as workers, as members of families, as citizens, as persons. Second, he should translate these needs into behavior that each should acquire. Third, he should study the methods used to achieve desirable kinds of behavior. Fourth, he should try to find out whether these methods have been effective.

The best way to do this is to study the developmental

records and case studies of a representative sampling of students. Through this study, needs for guidance are revealed. Lack of information about educational opportunities and about vocations, the unsuitability of students' programs with reference to their aptitudes and goals, discrepancies between abilities and achievement, poor quality of interests, and many other indications of the need for guidance (see pages 22 to 23) become evident. The higher the percentage of cases that, so far as can be judged by the records, are realizing their potentialities, the more successful the guidance program. To be sure, other factors in home and community that are facilitating or interfering with self-realization should be considered. But the efficacy of personnel work, in the long run, should be demonstrated in a larger number of better people—that is, individuals who are developing their best potentialities and using their knowledge and skills for social purposes.

Evaluation should be an intrinsic part of the process of personnel work. As the teacher works with individuals and with groups, he focuses his attention on what each of his students can become. He judges his success by the progress each one makes toward realizing his most acceptable self.

The crucial test of student personnel work is growth in personality. Any evaluation of the teacher's guidance should seek to answer the question: Are the personalities of the students in his group changing in the right direction? Have students obtained a clearer picture of the finest kind of person they can become and are they moving in that direction? Are their initiative and energy being increasingly released and used in wholesome, constructive activities—in better academic work, in healthful leisure interests, in friendly outgoing relations with old and young, boys and girls? Is the teacher himself becoming more of a real person—more interested in people and in life and with an increased sense of personal worth?

Part III

QUESTIONS AND REFERENCES

✧ Questions and Problems ✧

1. Which of the suggestions regarding interviewing can you apply in your next conference with a student? How can you improve your interviewing technic?
2. In what ways does an interview differ from an ordinary conversation?
3. Find examples of interviews in literature and show how they apply the principles of interviewing.
4. Practice gaining *rapport* in your everyday contacts with people.
5. What standardized tests are given in your school? In what ways can you make use of the results of standardized tests in the counseling of individual students?
6. In what ways are the present standardized tests inadequate?
7. What should be the minimum testing program for all students in your school?
8. What additional tests would be useful for individuals or groups under certain conditions?
9. What part should the teachers have in the testing program?
10. Who should record test results? In what form would the results be most useful?
11. Who should have access to test records? Who should not?
12. What recommendations would you make regarding telling a student the results of his test?
13. The principal asks you to rate the students in your class on certain characteristics. What will determine the accuracy and value of your ratings?
14. Visit a class or club; select one member and use all the suggestions you have gained in observing him.
15. What items are commonly included in a case study?
16. Make a case study of a child or older person whom you know.
17. How may the case study be used to help a student help himself?

18. Make a check list of the characteristics of a good developmental record. Use this check list in appraising the records in your school. What are the deficiencies in your record system? How can these deficiencies be corrected?
19. Keep a record, during a month, of the use you make of your students' developmental records. You might use the following form:

<i>Date</i>	<i>Purpose for Which I Consulted the Record</i>	<i>Information I Obtained</i>	<i>Information</i>	
			<i>I Felt the Need of but Did Not Obtain</i>	<i>Use I Made of the Information</i>

-
20. What contribution may faculty members be expected to make to the student's developmental record?
 21. Suggest ways in which the clerical labor or keeping records may be reduced.
 22. Who should have access to the developmental records?
 23. Where do you think the students' records should be kept so as to make them most accessible to those who should use them?
 24. What records should be sent to schools to which students are transferred? to colleges, technical schools, or other kinds of educational institutions? to employers?
 25. Keep a detailed record of your daily activities for a week. Does keeping a schedule help you to face the way you are spending your time? Does it give you a good basis for improving your schedule?
 26. Ask a student who is having difficulty with his academic work to keep a schedule for a week. Discuss it with him from the standpoint of time spent in study.
 27. How may the daily schedule be used in helping students to get the most out of their school and college years?
 28. If you are teaching, what do you know about the students in your class? How did you acquire this information? What information is most significant for their best development?
 29. How can the school, the family, and the community be brought closer together for more effective guidance of individuals?
 30. What suggestions have you found helpful in work with parents?

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Appendices

Appendix A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

To the High School Student:

Please read each question thoughtfully and give as complete and accurate replies as you can to the questions on these pages. You can easily see how important it is to make full, sincere, accurate, and frank answers to each question. If you have any further information or suggestions to give us, write them on the back of the last page.

NAME.....*Mary Smith*.....
BOY..... GIRL...*x*... AGE...*17*... GRADE...*Senior 12A*...
HOMEROOM TEACHER.....*Miss White*.....

1. What subjects are you now taking in high school?

English

Chemistry

Nutrition

American history

Gym

Next term I shall finish third-year Spanish.

2. Why did you choose these subjects?

I chose these subjects because English, chemistry, and history were required in the course I was taking. Nutrition I thought would be interesting because I had never had anything about it.

3. Who helped you choose your subjects:

When you entered high school.....*My family*.....

This year.....*Miss White*.....

4. Do you think now that you should have taken different subjects? Yes...*x*... No.....

What subjects? *Shorthand as an extra.*

Why? *Because in the work that I am going into shorthand would have helped me very much. Now I'll have to take it in college whereas if I had had it in high school I wouldn't have to take college time.*

5. What subjects offered by the school, and not taken, do you wish you could have taken?

Second-year typing.

Why did you not take them?

I couldn't fit it into my schedule.

Can and will you take them before you complete your high school work?

No.

6. What subjects not offered by the school do you wish you could have taken?

7. Are you planning to go to college? Yes...x... No.....

8. If "Yes," have you chosen a college? Yes...x... No.....

If so, what college? — *Junior College*

9. Why did you choose this college?

Because it offers a good general curriculum and would be a background for television.

10. Write what you know about this college.

That it has a high standing for a junior college.

11. Where did you get your information about colleges?

Miss White gave me college catalogs to look over.

12. Where would you go to get more information?

13. If you are not going to college, what do you expect to do when you leave high school?

14. Have you chosen your life work? Yes...x... No.....

If you have, what is the occupation? *Television*.....

15. Why did you choose this occupation?

Because it's a new field and I could "grow up with it," so to speak.

16. Write what you know about this occupation.
I don't know much about it but I'm willing to learn.
17. If you have not chosen your life work, write anything you know that would help you choose an occupation.
18. Where did you get this information?
19. Did you get any help in choosing your life work? Yes...x...
No.....
Tell just what this help was.
My dad happens to be in radio (producing and announcing) and he has told me a lot about the field so now I'd like to become part of it.
20. Name some books you have read during high school which have helped you in solving vocational, educational, or personal problems.
- | Required | Voluntary |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>The Tale of Two Cities</i> | <i>The Little Locksmith</i> |
21. What are the most important things you have gained from high school?
Being able to get along with other people and also seeing how many people make up the world.
22. Is there anything you have especially liked about high school?
Yes...x... No.....
Please explain.
I've made many friends which I shall probably keep for quite some time.
23. Is there anything you have especially disliked about high school? Yes...x... No.....
Please explain.
It hasn't gotten to the person that isn't in a particular crowd but could do something very worth while if someone would only give them the right push in the right direction. There isn't any school spirit either.
24. Name the three persons in the school who have inspired or helped you most.

- | | DEPARTMENT | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|---|--|
| | OR | | |
| NAME OF PERSON | POSITION | HELP YOU RECEIVED | |
| 1. ...Miss Gray... | History | She put me on the right road in my freshman year. | |
| 2. ...Miss White .. | Latin | Helped me choose the right subjects. | |
| 3. ...Mr. Black.... | Math. | He showed me how to think for myself. | |
25. Write a sketch describing the kind of person you are—what you like and dislike, the things you can do best, the difficulties you have met, and anything else that describes you as a person.
- I like to be with people very much. I enjoy working on committees, etc. I like school except for math courses, but Mr. Black showed me that if one puts their mind to it it can be done.*
26. Write a similar sketch describing the kind of person you'd like to become.
- I'd like to be a person with many friends, to really be able to enjoy my job.*
27. If you had three wishes, what would they be?
1. *We could have a student handbook.*
 2. *To be a success in life.*
 3. *To be happily married.*
28. How do you usually spend your time after school and on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays? Include the names of all clubs to which you belong. Put a star (*) in front of the things you learned to like in school.
- * *Page editor on "Echo"*
Editor of church paper
Chairman ushering committee
YWCA member
Member of student organization council
Belong to church fellowship and choir
Play and prom committee
Go to football games (Saturday)
Work down at hospital

29. What recreational activities do you think the school should offer?

Field hockey for the girls.

30. If one day you were to hold a position as teacher, how would you go about your work of helping pupils?

I would try to find out what I wasn't putting over to my students. Maybe I thought I was, but wasn't. I'd explain everything more fully to the pupils until they got it. I'd try to make the subject as interesting as possible to all. I'd ask their viewpoints.

31. What do you think the school can do to help you to be a happier and more successful person both during and after your school years—to be the best kind of person you can become—to help you develop your interests and abilities?

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